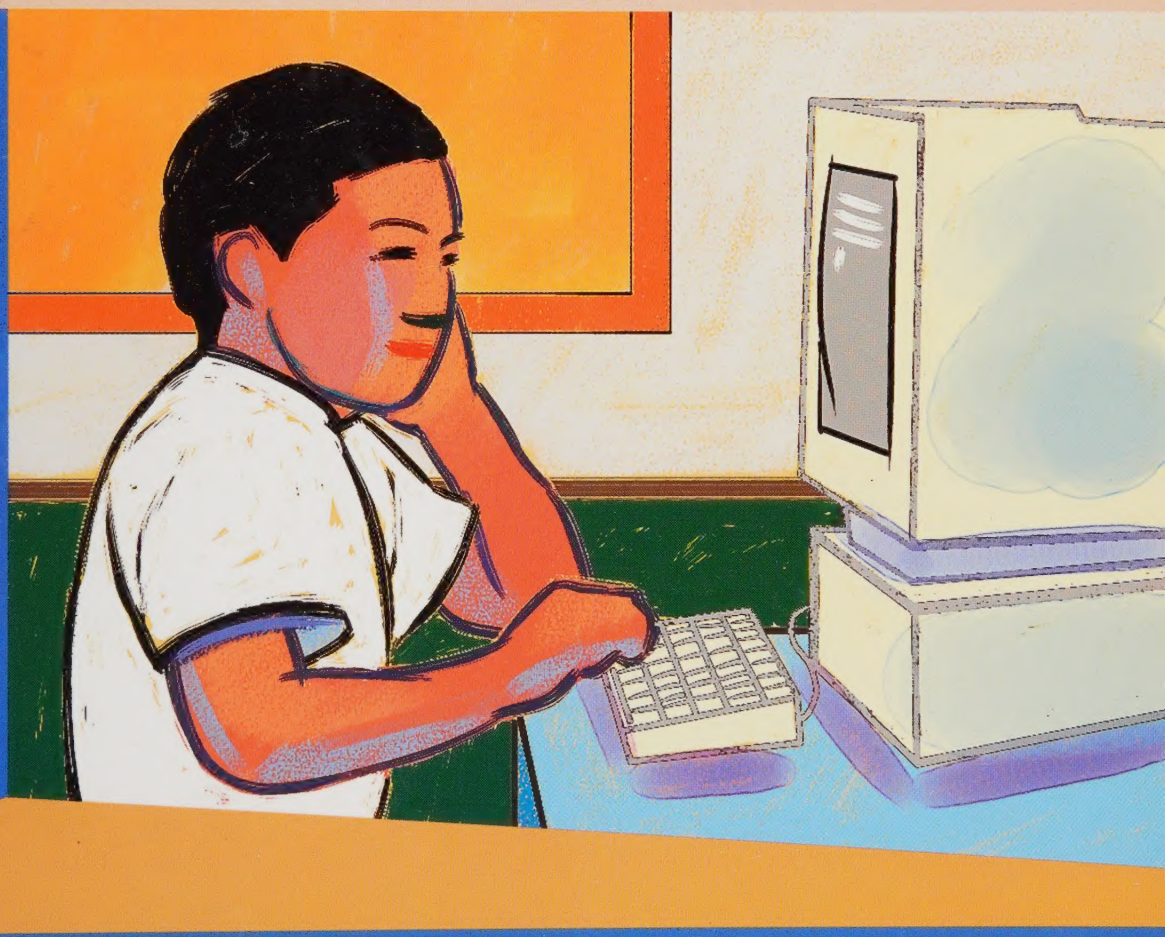
FALL 2001

TEACHING & SCHOOLS

In A Changing Society

EDUC 2201 COURSE PACKET



Field Experience Workbook Activity Guide

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY • BAGWELL COLLEGE OF EDUCATION


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Field Experience Workbook Activity Guide

Kennesaw State University

Bagwell College of Education

FALL 2001

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Kennesaw State University
Bagwell College of Education

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Welcome to EDUC 2201 Field Experience
Overview 1
Explanation of Field Placements 3
Calendar of Field Experience for Fall 2001 4
Field Experience FAQ (Frequently Asked Questions) 5
Field Experience Contract 9
Field Experience Time Record 10
Comment Sheet 11

Field Experience Placement Forms
Request for Field Experience Placement Form 12
Professional Liability Insurance Forms 13
Student Georgia Association of Educators 13
Student Professional Association of Georgia Educators 15

Field Experience Workbook 17
Topic: Motives for Teaching 17
Sample Interview Questions 18
Topic: School Environment 19
Duties Checklist 20
Topic: Educational Philosophy 21
Observing Indicators of Philosophy Form 22
Topic: At-Risk Students 23
Topic: Governance and Finance 24
Topic: Student Diversity and Social Issues 25
Topic: Classroom Management 26
Topic: Curriculum Issues 27
Topic: Evidence of Technology 28
Software and Hardware Chart 29
Organization Chart and Questions 30
Topic: Effective Teaching and Professionalism 31
Observation Form 32
Topic: Educational Reform 33
Topic: Historical Foundations 34
Current Educational Issue Topics 35

Field Experience Evaluation Forms 36
Mid-term Evaluation 36
Final Evaluation 37

Appendices

I. Bagwell College of Education Guide to Technology Skills.....39

II. Georgia Professional Standards Commission Code of Ethics 55

III. Introduction to WebCT 61

VI. Introduction to Power Point.....69

V. Mentoring and Tutoring.....73

Selected Chapters from *Those Who Can Teach*

Chapter 9: *How Are Schools Governed, Influenced, and Financed?*.....116

Chapter 10: *What are the Philosophical Foundations of American Education?*.....148

Chapter 11: *What is the History of American Education?*.....181

OVERVIEW OF FIELD EXPERIENCE

Objective: The field experience assigned to accompany the Kennesaw State University course, EDUC 2201 Teaching and Schools in a Changing Society, is meant to allow students considering education as a major an opportunity to participate in the daily activities of a public school. As students being introduced to education from the perspective of being a teacher, it is important that they observe and participate in teaching as well as non-teaching duties. A primary purpose of the field experience for EDUC 2201 is to provide the education major with the opportunity to observe the organization, environment, and procedures of the public school. To achieve this objective, the student need not be placed in a classroom that corresponds to his or her declared subject or grade level major.

Time required: Students are required to spend at least 30 hours per semester in the field experience placement. The time should be spread out so students visit the school once a week. Specifically, the student should spend 3 hours per week in the school for 10 weeks. A minimum of 1 hour per week should be spent with a teacher in a classroom setting. The time in the school will be documented and verified by the cooperating or other administrator.

Activities: Students will be provided with an investigative guide each week. This guide will instruct students to examine various aspects of the school corresponding to topics being discussed in the lecture portion of the course. Results of the investigation will be evaluated to contribute to the students' final course grade. They will also be included in a field experience journal in which students will reflect upon his or her observations and participation.

Evaluation: The evaluation of the field experience will include grades from weekly workbook reports, reflective journal writings, and formal and informal evaluations completed by public school personnel. The workbook reports and journal will be due on assigned dates. (Check the course syllabus.) Formal field experience evaluations will be completed by the assigned cooperating teacher and turned in at the mid-point and the end of the semester. (Check the course syllabus for the dates.) You will be given the field experience evaluation forms to give to your cooperating teacher and you are responsible for arranging their delivery back to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Professionalism: It is expected that future teachers will conduct themselves with the professionalism that is required of practicing teachers. Such professionalism includes effective and respectful collaboration and communication with colleagues, prompt attendance of all meetings and classes, moral behavior and actions, appropriate communication and appropriate dress. Please note that "meeting expectations" for teachers is usually what others consider "exceeding expectations." EDUC 2201 students are considering entering a profession of extremely high standards that they are expected to live up to daily. If at any time, a student's actions or attitudes are judged to be less than professional by an EDUC 2201 instructor, KSU faculty member, field experience cooperating teacher, school principal or other school faculty member, appropriate

remedial action will be taken. Such action may include the development of a plan for the student to complete by the end of the semester or the removal of the student from the EDUC 2201 field experience. A student must have a satisfactory rating on professionalism AND successfully complete the field experience to receive a passing grade of C+ or better in EDUC 2201.

Credit for experience as a substitute or para-professional: Past experience as a substitute or para-professional DOES NOT count to fulfill the field experience activities and assignments for EDUC 2201. A student may continue to substitute as he or she completes the field experience for this course. However, no compensation or payment may be received for services and the student is still obligated to complete the activities and assignments associated with the field experience.

The experience of acting as a substitute or para-professional is very valuable to the education student. For the purpose of achieving the objectives of the EDUC 2201 course, specific focuses are required for the fieldwork. These focuses may or may not have been addressed in past experience. Therefore, to assure that specific goals and objectives are met, all students are required to complete the field experience portion of EDUC 2201.

Criminal History Background Check: Before admission to Teacher Education at Kennesaw State University, students are required to consent to a background check. All students enrolled in EDUC 2201 are required to complete a Criminal History consent form, giving the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships in the Bagwell College of Education to receive the complete criminal history. Completed consent forms will be submitted to the KSU Department of Public Safety, who will complete the criminal history background check. The Departmental findings will be returned to the CENTER FOR FIELD EXPERIENCES AND PARTNERSHIPS for final action. Along with that consent form, students are required to complete a 'Personal Affirmation' regarding their history. There are three basic possibilities as a result of the background check:

1. No criminal history background is found. This finding is forwarded to the admissions office of the William Impey Teacher Education Advisement Center as having met one of the criteria for admission to the program.
2. Criminal history is indicated on the personal affirmation form as well as in the criminal background check conducted by the Department of Public Safety. In this case, the information will go to the Bagwell College of Education Professional standing committee for review and subsequent action.

The KSU Department of Public Safety finds a criminal background incident(s) and there was none indicated on the Personal Affirmation form. In this instance, either the criminal background discovery and/or the falsely signed statement may constitute sufficient grounds to deny placement in an educational field experience and/or admission to teacher education.

Students must provide proof of liability insurance BEFORE they are assigned to a field placement.

EDUC 2201 FIELD EXPERIENCE PLACEMENTS

Kennesaw State University, the Professional Teacher Education Unit, the Bagwell College of Education, and the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships collaborate with several area schools in the placement of EDUC 2201 students. In placing students, consideration is given to the identification of cooperating schools within a reasonable distance of the KSU campus, availability of teachers willing to work with a KSU student, and the EDUC 2201 student's major field of study. Every effort is made to ensure a quality field experience for the EDUC 2201 student, the cooperating teacher, the classroom students, and the cooperating school.

EDUC 2201 students may or may not be placed in a classroom or with a teacher that matches their declared major. All education majors in the Bagwell College of Education are required to complete field experiences at various levels. The opportunity to observe and participate at a level other than that of the student's declared major will serve to complete this requirement.

In rare cases, students may be allowed to make their own arrangements for field placement. Two circumstances will be considered in these cases: (1) the student lives at great distance from KSU and in a district with which KSU does not have a placement agreement; (2) the student is employed at a school. Otherwise, a student should NOT approach a teacher or administrator of a school and request a field experience placement at the school without arrangements being made by the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships at KSU. The EDUC 2201 professor and the director of the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships must approve all individual arrangements using the following form. If a student can make arrangements individually, he or she should provide a copy of this guide to the administrator and the selected cooperating teacher and get a letter approving the placement from the school administrator.

EDUC 2201 Field Experience
Calendar

Week Of	*Event*
August 18	KSU classes begin
August 27 to September 7	Field Placements will be made
Week of September 10	School Orientations Your school's specific date and time will be announced in class.
September 17	Field experience begins
October 19	Mid-Point Field Experience Evaluations Due Last day to withdraw without penalty
November 26	Last Week of Field Experience Final Field Experience Evaluations Due
December 6	Last day for KSU Classes

Kennesaw State University
2201 Field Experiences
FAQ
Frequently Asked Questions

1. **What is the overall purpose of the field experience?**
   The field experience portion of EDUC 2201 is an integral part of the course. Kennesaw State University has worked with public schools to obtain placements that provide a broad and realistic picture of the many facets of a public school. At the same time we seek to provide a service to the schools. As a partner in multiple, rich collaborations, KSU strives to be a contributor. The field experience should enable KSU students to experience the world of classroom teachers as they interact with and facilitate the learning of students, observe and participate in classroom interactions and activities and in the teaching and learning process, utilize knowledge and understanding of content and pedagogy in the context of the classroom, and examine and reflect upon their teaching styles and skills as well as their educational philosophy.

2. **How does the field experience relate to the course work?**
   The field experience is an integral part of the 2201 course. The student will receive a grade in the field experience that is directly tied to their overall grade for the course. If a student does not successfully complete the field experience, they cannot receive a passing grade of C or better in the course.

3. **How many hours is the student expected to observe in the school?**
   The field experience is not a matter of merely being physically present in a school for a prescribed number of hours. The students are expected to be in the schools on regular school days at least 3 hours week for 10 weeks, depending on the needs of each school. Approximate beginning and ending dates will be given each semester.

4. **Are there any specific hours the student is required to be at the school?**
   Maybe. All Field Experiences are designed to be completed during the regular public school day. The schedule should be based on the needs of the schools as determined by the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships in conjunction with the availability of the field experience student. Some schools may require specific hours, while others may be able to accommodate student schedules. It is recommended that the students keep a consistent schedule that is agreed upon by the school, the student, the EDUC 2201 Professor, and the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships at the beginning of the semester.

5. **Can the student observe in more than one classroom setting?**
   Yes! With approval of the cooperating teacher, students are encouraged to observe in as many public school settings as possible. While there are no specific requirements that students be placed in multiple settings, they are encouraged to seek multiple opportunities

6. **What is the role and responsibility of the student, collaborating teacher and college supervisor?**

The Student: The teacher preparation students' experiences will vary reflecting their own confidence, previous experiences, and level of skill development as well as the nature of the class and needs of the students with whom they are working. The KSU field experience student will be expected to:

- Observe cooperating teacher to gain an understanding of the world of teaching,
- Take initiative and seek opportunities to interact with students,
- Exhibit positive, professional attitudes, and
- Follow directions of the collaborating teacher.

The Collaborating Teacher: The collaborating teacher serves as a model classroom teacher. In this role, it is important that the collaborating teacher provide:

- Opportunities for students to examine instructional materials, curriculum guides, textbooks and plans,
- Opportunities for KSU students to observe the collaborating teacher in action,
- Opportunities for the KSU field experience student to interact with a variety of learners in meaningful ways,
- Opportunities to become familiar with all aspects of the school (i.e., media, SST, etc.); and
- Provide feedback on the field experience students' performance and professionalism.

The University Supervisor: At this stage the college supervisor has three primary roles:

- To provide the collaborating teacher with information;
- To link the field experience to the educational concepts and issues discussed in class; and
- To monitor the student's field experiences

7. **What paperwork is required to be completed by the cooperating teacher?**

There are two short evaluations that the cooperating teacher is expected to complete for the field experience student. The mid-point evaluation will be used to help the student pin-point areas students should work on during the last half of the field experience. The final evaluation will be used in conjunction with the mid-point evaluation to assess the students overall performance in the field experience and to assign their grade. These evaluations will be given to the students to pass along to their teachers approximately 2 weeks before they are requested to be returned. The teacher can either return the evaluation with the student, mail it or fax it to the university instructor.

8. **Are the field experience students required to have professional liability insurance before they start the field experience?**

Yes! Students are required to have obtained professional liability insurance before they begin their field experiences. A verification of liability insurance has been submitted as part of the student's Field Experience Placement Request form.

9. **What are the specific professional expectations the field experience students are expected to follow while in the field experience?**

Participation in a field experience is a privilege and carries with it certain responsibilities. As a teacher education student in a field experience, each individual represents KSU and the teaching profession, and each is expected to maintain high standards of personal and professional ethics. While every aspect of professionalism cannot be detailed, the following considerations are presented for review:

Conduct During the Field Experience: KSU students participating in a field experience are expected to behave professionally at all times. They will follow all policies of the cooperating school and be expected to meet the same standards of conduct held for the regular faculty and/or any standards identified by the building administrator at the field site.

Dress and Grooming: KSU students are expected to dress and groom professionally. Permissible dress and grooming are defined by the policies, the culture of each individual school, and the nature of the instructional activities.

Attendance and Punctuality: Regular attendance and punctuality are critical to success in a field experience. Each KSU student will clearly demonstrate that s/he is responsible and understands the need and importance of regular and punctual attendance. Arriving reasonably early and staying reasonably late is a good professional decision for students in field experiences.

Relationships with Faculty: KSU field experience students should have the opportunity to meet as many of the faculty of their cooperating school as possible. Professional acquaintances and contacts as well as informal associations are part of the learning process for pre-service teachers.

Confidentiality: Disclosure of confidential information is NOT to occur as mandated by the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974. This means that teacher education students must be particularly careful not to discuss student information with anyone other than personnel within the school who have a right to know about a student. KSU students should be careful not to discuss student grades, performance, etc. in settings where they can be overheard by a casual passerby.

Beepers, Cellualr Telephones, Tobacco Products: Students are not to possess beepers or cellular telephones inside the school building. Schools in all systems with which we have placement agreements are drug-free zones. Tobacco products are not allowed anywhere on campus. This includes automobiles.

Please refer to the Field Experiences Handbook for more specific information regarding professional expectations.

10. **Who can the school contact if there are any questions or concerns during the field experience?**

Please feel free to contact the college supervisor assigned to your school if you have any questions or concerns at any point during the field experience. You may also contact the Director of the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships - Dr. Vicki McLain at 770-423-6734. The contact information for college supervisors will be included in the field experience packet.

11. **What is the process if a student needs to be removed from the field experience?**

Removal of a KSU field experience student from a field experience will only be done for compelling reasons. The Director of the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships and/or the university supervisor will remove teacher education students when any of the following occur:

- The appropriate school authority state that the teacher education student's presence in the classroom is not in the best interests of public school students an/or requests that the field experience student be removed.
- The university supervisor believes circumstances are such as to prevent either the development and/or maintenance of a satisfactory learning environment;
- Unprofessional/unethical behavior has been exhibited by the field experience student.
- A decision has been reached that the field experience student cannot receive a satisfactory grade.

Initial recommendation for a withdrawal can be made by any person directly involved in the arrangement. Ideally, the university supervisor will be consulted before contact is made with the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships. However, as with all student placement concerns, any party may contact the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships directly. Because KSU students and faculty are guests in the public schools, students will be immediately withdrawn upon request of the appropriate school personnel or when the judgment is made by those personnel that the KSU student's presence is not in the best interests of public school students.

You may wish to make a copy of this FAQ to give to your cooperating teacher.

EDUC 2201 FIELD EXPERIENCE CONTRACT

Name _____

Cooperating Teacher _____

Grade/Subject _____

School _____

Arranged Times for Field Experience* _____

EDUC 2201 Instructor _____

Class Meeting Times _____

*Changes to a student's agreed-upon times for field experience may be made provided that prior arrangements are made with the cooperating teacher.

- I have read the EDUC 2201 Field Experience Guide and have made sure that my cooperating teacher has been provided with a copy.
- I have read the Bagwell College of Education/Professional Teacher Education Unit Field Experience Guide and Workbook.
- I agree to commit to participate in 30 semester hours (3 hours per week for 10 weeks) of field experience at the public school in which I am assigned. I understand that I may make arrangements in a school not collaborating with KSU for EDUC 2201 field placements ONLY if I have a prior relationship with that school and have permission from my EDUC 2201 instructor and the Director of the Center for Field Experiences and Partnerships.
- I have provided proof of liability insurance.
- I understand that a criminal background check will be performed at the beginning of the semester. I also understand that the results of this check or my providing false testimony as to the anticipated results of this check might preclude my being placed in a public school for field experience.
- I agree to model the expectations for professionalism while in my field experience placement and understand that unsatisfactory professionalism is a basis for not passing EDUC 2201.

Signed _____ **Date** _____

EDUC 2201 FIELD EXPERIENCE
TIME RECORD

(Make copies of this sheet as needed.)

Name Melody Rohlfs

Cooperating Teacher Tammy Watson

Grade/Subject 5th grade

School Baker Elementary

WEEK OF:	TIME IN	TIME OUT	TOTAL TIME	TEACHER'S SIGNATURE
9/18	11:00	2:00	3h	
9/25	11:00	2:00	3h	
10/2	11:00	2:00	3h	
10/9	11:00	2:00	3h	
10/16	11:00	2:00	3h	
10/23	11:00	2:00	3h	
10/30	—	—	0h	
11/6	11:00	2:00	3h	
11/13	11:00	2:00	3h	
11/20	11:00	2:00	3h	
11/27	11:00	2:00	3h	
total	—	—	30h	

COMMENT SHEET

Comments (not required for each week):
(Make copies of this sheet as needed.)

Week of:	Cooperating Teacher	EDUC Student
10/9	Sequence of events - during reading write words to remember sequence retell story using words (summary) * introduces book report!	

Kennesaw State University
Professional Teacher Education Unit
EDUC 2201-Teaching and Schools in a Changing Society
Field Experience Placement Request

Semester_____ **Year**_____ **Professor**_____

2201 Section/Meeting Times_____

Name_____**Social Security #**_____
Last First Middle

Street Address_____ **City**_____

Zip Code_____ **County**_____

Telephone (H)_____ **(W)**_____**email**_____

Program of Study (Circle One) ECE MGE SED P-12

If MGE, SED, K-12, or P-12 what area(s)? _____ _____

If you are making individual arrangements for the field experience, give details.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Instructor's approval (initial if approved)_____

Verification of Liability Insurance

As part of my professional preparation, I understand that I will be assigned for certain laboratory experiences in school systems beyond the college campus. I am further aware that the following statement is a part of the State Department of Education Guidelines for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Georgia in Teacher Education: "Liability-Prior to professional laboratory experiences placement, students must provide evidence of having adequate tort liability insurance or waive such coverage in writing." As systems with which KSU has agreements for placing students require liability insurance, I have obtained coverage.

I, _____**, verify that I have tort liability insurance as follows:**

Name of company: _____

Amount:_____ **Dates of coverage:**_____

_____ _____
Signature of student **Date**

Rights
Abuses against student teachers occur with alarming frequency across the nation, so the NEA Student Program created a *Bill of Rights for Student Teachers*. This provides legal assistance to members involved in related litigation so your rights are protected.

Insurance
You get $1 million worth of liability insurance coverage to protect you anytime you are involved in work with school children, either student teaching or observing a classroom.

CLASS
Student programs throughout Georgia are getting involved in *Community Learning through America's Schools*. CLASS projects currently include mentoring an at-risk student or staffing a homework hotline. Through these projects, SGAE members can gain invaluable teaching experience, make contacts with parents and teachers, and help those students who need it. SGAE Chapters may be eligible for $1,000 grants from the NEA for CLASS projects.

Opportunities
You have the opportunity to work with the Association by lobbying to affect change in such things as teacher education, legislation affecting teachers, certification requirements, etc.

Workshops and Institutes
You may take advantage of state and nationally sponsored workshops and conferences on topics that include discipline, coping with stress, teacher certification, evaluation, and other areas especially designed to meet the needs of future teachers.

The Beginning Teachers Institute
Also known as the BTI, the *Beginning Teachers Institute* was designed by GAE for first year and transfer teachers in Georgia. The BTI topics include planning, discipline, classroom management, critical thinking styles, teaching strategies, evaluation and assessment and multi-cultural education.

Professional Libraries
You have access to the GAE and NEA professional libraries and vast research materials -- two of the most extensive educational research and library departments in the nation.

Representation
You have direct representation in establishing SGAE, GAE, and NEA policies and resolutions.

Professional Contacts
You can make valuable professional and personal friendships to help you feel more comfortable as a classroom teacher.

Special Services
You can take advantage of the money-saving *Special Services* benefits which include travel, discount purchasing books and insurance programs.

Rebates
You can receive a rebate of up to $40 toward NEA dues based on a $10 rebate each year of student membership during your first year of teaching.

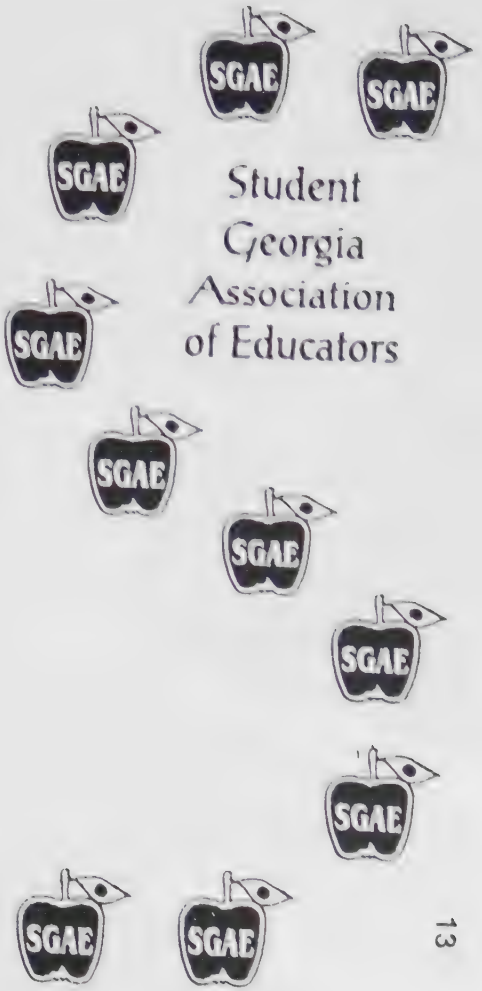
Scholarships
You have the opportunity to win a $1,000 GAE Scholarship for Excellence.

Organize an SGAE Chapter On Your Campus

- Form a student steering committee of persons who share common interests and goals.
- Enlist the support of key people such as the president of the college or university, dean, chancellor, department chairs, and student leaders.
- Contact your local GAE associations for assistance. Their members can speak at your meetings and involve you in their association activities.
- Select an advisor. Look for someone who has a good rapport with students, is willing to spend time with the chapter, is committed to teacher education, works in the education department, and is a GAE/NEA member.
- Hold a steering committee meeting of interested persons to establish your organizational plan. Prepare for general meetings, and make assignments, including program, publicity, and refreshment ideas.
- Hold a chapter meeting. Select a convenient time and date, invite all education majors to join your chapter, distribute membership forms, promotional materials, and invite a keynote speaker.
- Establish an SGAE membership spot or location that is centrally located on campus and open most of the time. Place a bulletin board in this area to display SGAE materials. Assign a member to monitor the display area and keep it stocked with membership forms which can be picked up and returned.
- Continue membership promotion and make personal contacts by telephoning, visiting, writing postcards and letters, and providing SGAE promotional materials.
- Hold a second steering committee meeting and plan for a general meeting. Adopt (or recommendation a local constitution and bylaws, select a slate of officers, propose chapter dues, and evaluate what has been done so far.
- Plan activities for the year. Involve your elected leaders, committee chairpersons, and your advisor in establishing a membership goal and campaign. Identify program areas of concern, plan for state and national activities, develop a budget, etc.

Student Georgia Association of Educators
3951 Snapfinger Parkway, Suite 400 • Decatur, GA 30035-3203
(404) 289-5867 or 1-800-282-7142

An Affiliate of the Georgia Association of Educators and the National Education Association



Membership Enrollment Form
Student Georgia Association of Educators

Name _____
Last First Middle Initial

Home Phone: _____ Social Security Number: _____ - _____ - _____

Address: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip: _____

College/University: _____ Certification Level: _____ Gender: _____

Anticipated Date of Graduation _____ Birthdate: _____ / _____ / _____

National Dues: $2.00 (complimentary) State Dues: $1.00 (complimentary) Local Dues: _____ Total: _____

Member Signature: _____ Date: _____

SGAE Advisor: _____

Return to your local SGAE Representative or return to:
SGAE, 3951 Snapfinger Parkway,, Suite 400
Decatur, GA 30035-3203.

The Student Georgia Associat[illegible] f Educators

The Student Georgia Association of Educa[illegible] pre-professional program sponsored by the Georgia Association of Educators and the National Education Association, helps prepare education majors for a brighter professional future. Especially for education majors, SGAE is designed to provide college students with the opportunity to make their voices heard locally, statewide, and nationally through activities that affect their chosen profession - - teaching.

Today's colleges and universities do an excellent job preparing students to assume their teaching responsibilities. To complement these instructional programs, SGAE works to help students make that smooth transition from the campus to the classroom by exploring the critical non-instructional aspects of the profession. Student GAE works with its members to make sure they learn about salaries, competency testing, evaluations, discipline, certification requirements, stress, and political and legislative activities.

Student GAE members and their colleagues across the nation already are professionals - - demonstrating their commitment to action and making an investment toward a bright, professional future and career.

Join SGAE

SGAE offers many services and programs to its members, and being part of this organization will make you more aware of your role as an educator, the issues surrounding education, and the teaching profession.

As an SGAE member, you will have the opportunity to interact with other students who feel the same way as you do about education, because when you join SGAE you join over 40,000 other college and university students who are preparing to become teachers. SGAE is a strong and vital organization, and any student who is an education major at a state, regional, or nationally accredited institution may join SGAE.

Get Involved

Teaching and the entire education profession are in the midst of exciting changes. Because of population, structural, and staff changes, tomorrow's public schools will differ from today's, and future educators will face a radically different school system than did your teachers. By joining SGAE, you can be the driving force behind the positive changes taking place in education as a result of the National Education Association's and the Georgia Association of Educators efforts.

Local Activities

- Meetings and programs dealing with topics of concern to future teachers.
- Opportunities to meet and share ideas with other education majors and practicing classroom teachers.
- Leadership Opportunities in the Association from the campus, to state, and national levels.

State Activities

- Two statewide SGAE Conferences each year. During these conferences, SGAE members determine the official policies of the Association, and participate in specially designed instructional workshops to help students become the best classroom teachers.
- Georgia Foundation for the Improvement of Education. A GAE scholarship program designed to offer financial assistance to future teachers.
- Leadership workshops to ensure that Student GAE meets your needs.

National Activities

- Student delegates make recommendations for the National Education Association Student Program.
- Student Leadership Conference. Held annually, this conference gives SGAE members the opportunity to meet and confer with students from across the United States.
- Instructional conferences and leadership workshops especially designed to prepare members for a career in education.

How to Join SGAE

- Contact the chapter president on campus in the education department or the chapter advisor on campus.
- Or . . . Contact the dean of education or the dean of academic affairs.
- Or . . . Contact the GAE UniServ Director located in your area.
- Or . . . Contact the Student GAE Program Coordinator at 404.289.5867 ext. 378 or 1.800.282.7142 ext. 378.

What You Get For Your SGAE Dues

Publications

- *The SGAE Chalkboard*. The official newsletter of the Student Georgia Association of Educators.
- *The Update*. The official newspaper of the Georgia Association of Educators.
- *NEA Today*. The official magazine of the National Education Association.
- *Tomorrow's Teachers*. The annual magazine for NEA student members.
- *NEWSAU*. The NEA Student Program newsletter.

SPAGE members are invited to participate in the following PAGE events:

Annual Conference

Fall District Meetings

Fall Retreat

Professional Workshops, Seminars and Clinics

Join SPAGE today!

SPAGE Scholarships

SPAGE

Scholarships are available for all SPAGE members who are rising college juniors or seniors.

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Please call if you have any questions or need further information.

Sue Laminack, SPAGE Coordinator
Professional Association of Georgia Educators
P.O. Box 942270
Atlanta, GA 31141-2270
770-216-8555 or 1-800-334-6861

STUDENT

Professional Association of Georgia Educators

Georgia's Future Educators

Why SPAGE?

The Student Professional Association of Georgia Educators (SPAGE) is affiliated with the Professional Association of Georgia Educators. Its purposes are:

- To provide students with the liability insurance they need as they complete their course requirements.
- To acquaint students preparing to teach with the history, ethics, organization, policies and programs of the state organization.
- To develop among future teachers an understanding of the teaching profession.
- To interest capable young men and women in education as a professional career.
- To encourage the practice of high standards of personal and professional conduct among future teachers.
- To provide educational opportunities through scholarships for students wishing to pursue a career in the field of education.
- To promote understanding and cooperation in accomplishing maximum support and benefits for educators.

What can SPAGE do for me?

Through PAGE's publications, services and statewide meetings, SPAGE members receive current information on education legislation, salary schedules and current "hot" issues in the teaching field. SPAGE provides the best liability insurance available, a critical requirement in today's teaching environment.

Why do I need insurance now? I'm not teaching yet.

In many methods courses, students are required to observe in the classroom. Before you can observe, it is advisable to have liability insurance. In fact, most colleges have a policy requiring their education students to have liability insurance.

Membership Benefits

- ☑ $1,000,000 of liability insurance which covers civil or criminal allegations, win or lose, on or off school grounds, while performing your duties
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- ☑ Quick and easy access to the PAGE office on a toll-free line (1/800/334-6861)
- ☑ Workshops on college campuses
- ☑ Scholarships to SPAGE members who are rising juniors or seniors in college. For specific eligibility requirements and an application, please call the PAGE office between September and December
- ☑ A one-time, 50% discount on professional dues for first-year teachers
- ☑ Professional magazine and other publications

REMINDER !

Once a student completes requirements for a degree and becomes certified, membership status must be changed from STUDENT ($7.00) to PROFESSIONAL ($99.00) to receive full benefits which include liability and employment rights insurance coverage.

(First year of teaching is half price — $49.50 for professionals, and $25.00 for substitutes or paraprofessionals.)

(Cut along dotted line and return to PAGE.)

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Home Phone ( )_____ College Phone ( )_____

College _____ Campus_____

Expected Date of Graduation: _____ (month) _____ (year)

Signature: _____ Date_____

*Note: Please give permanent home address or notify us when your address changes.

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Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Motives for Teaching

Objectives:

- Explore your cooperating teacher's motives for teaching.
- Identify your motives for teaching.
- Identify some intrinsic and extrinsic rewards of being involved in education.
- Explain the importance of exploring your motives for teaching.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Identify your own motives for teaching and explain why it is important to examine these motives.

3. Interview your cooperating teacher at a time that is convenient for him/her. Use the interview questions on the next page.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Motives for Teaching, page 2

Name _____

Cooperating Teacher _____

Grade/Subject _____

School _____

Date 9/18/01

EDUC 2201 Prof. _____

EDUC 2201 Section _____

Sample Questions for your Cooperating Teacher

(You may use any, some, or none of these. This list is not exhaustive.)

1. How long have you been teaching?
   4 years
2. When did you know you wanted to be a teacher?
   When oldest daughter went to Kindergarden
3. Were there any significant events or circumstances that motivated you to pursue a teaching career?
   wanted to do something to help society
4. What would you say are your primary motivations for continuing to teach?
   love to learn
   learn along with kids
5. Are there any other intrinsic or extrinsic rewards that you count as significant?
   holidays off with kids
6. Do you plan to stay in the classroom?
   No. work with Board of Ed.
   teach teachers
7. What situations would contribute to a decision for you to leave or stay in the classroom?
   - if told had to teach a certain way
   - smaller classes
8. Other comments?

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: School Environment

Objectives:

- Explore the physical environment of the school.
- Identify and describe student services offered by the school.
- Participate in and/or observe exploratory classes.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Describe the physical environment of the school including decorations in the classrooms and hallways and initial impressions as you enter the school. **Reflect** on how the physical environment in a school impacts students and teachers as they approach the task of learning and teaching.

3. Use the following list to select several exploratory activities to observe or in which to participate. Check the activities off of the list.

4. Turn your description in to your EDUC 2201 professor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

Exploratory Activities Checklist

Name _____

Cooperating Teacher _____

Grade/Subject _____

School _____

Date _____

EDUC 2201 Prof. _____

EDUC 2201 Section _____

The following list contains activities that you may observe or participate in, or people you may interview. Check each item off the list as you complete it. Turn this list in at the end of the semester.

- ❑ Lunchroom duty
- ❑ Bus duty
- ❑ Hall monitoring
- ❑ Taking attendance
- ❑ Passing out/Collecting papers
- ❑ Grading papers
- ❑ Facilitating group work
- ❑ Special education classroom
- ❑ PE class
- ❑ Art class
- ❑ Music class
- ❑ Foreign language class
- ❑ School counselor
- ❑ Learning support specialist
- ❑ Principal
- ❑ PTSA
- ❑ Chaperone field trip
- ❑ After-school function
- ❑ Attend sporting event
- ❑ Other

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Educational Philosophy

Objectives:

- Identify your cooperating teacher's philosophy of education.
- Describe the prevailing philosophy of the school.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Use the following page to write down observations that might give you insight into your cooperating teacher's philosophy of education.

All Kids able to learn
process involves, student, [illegible]
society create productive citizens

Observing Indicators of Educational Philosophy, page 2

There are many ways to uncover your educational philosophy. One way is to observe teachers' practices and infer their philosophy from their actions. The purpose of this observation is to give you experience in seeing the links between philosophy and practice.

Directions: Think about how you would manage the following indicators. Observe the class at your field experience, print this page and describe the following characteristics.

Indicator	Description
Arrangement of Desks	4 groups of six desks
Teacher vs. Student Talk	
Grouping Arrangements and Assignments	
Learning Centers	
Student Movement	
Instructional Materials	
Assessment Materials	
Curriculum Sources	
Student Activities	

Review the descriptions of the various philosophical schools from the text and class discussions. Attempt to "label" your cooperating teacher's educational philosophy based on this information and your observations. Explain why you "labeled" your teacher with the philosophy you did.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: At-Risk Students

Objectives:

- Identify the characteristics of at-risk students in your school.
- Identify successful strategies for working with at-risk students.
- Reflect on how at-risk students affect the diversity of the classroom and the school.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Work one-on-one with a student identified to be "at risk" in a tutoring or mentoring capacity. Describe this student and the objectives of your interactions.

3. Describe activities and strategies that you use to interact with this student so that s/he is motivated to attend to and complete learning tasks. Describe how successful these strategies were or were not in attaining your objectives in working with the student.

4. **Reflect** on how your student contributes to the diversity of the school and what impact this makes on you as a teacher and the student as a learner.

5. Write up your information and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Governance and Finance

Objectives:

- Describe the governance structure of your assigned field experience school listing the titles from teaching assuming some administrative duties through the top administrative level in the school.
- Identify ways that parents are involved in the instruction, management, and decision-making processes in your school.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Examine the faculty handbook and/or other appropriate documents to discover the governance structure of the school. List or draw an organizational chart that includes all levels of administrative duties including those carried out by some teachers.

3. Ask appropriate school personnel to describe how and to what extent parents are involved in school activities including classroom instruction, chaperoning, and decision-making.

Write up your observations, discoveries, and reflections and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Student Diversity and Social Issues

Objectives:

- Describe the student population of your assigned school and classroom.
- Discuss special services for minority and exceptional students.
- Identify social issues that impact the school's environment and student learning.

Activities:

- Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

- Talk to teachers and administrators to find out what population attends the school. What is the SES of the surrounding community? What is the percentage of the minority populations? Have there been any significant trends recently? What are the expectations for future populations?

- Consider the population of the classroom in which you observes. Describe the cultural and learning diversity represented. Comment on how the classroom teacher attends to these individual differences.

- Interview special services personnel such as special education teachers, learning support specialists, guidance counselors, ESOL teachers, etc. Discover how these personnel serve their appropriate populations.

- Identify social issues that impact the school's environment and student learning by speaking with teachers and administrators.

- **Reflect** on how student diversity affects the environment of the classroom and school.

- Write up what you have found and turn it into your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Classroom Management

Objectives:

- List the classroom rules for your assigned classroom.
- Describe how teachers maintain appropriate behavior in the classroom.
- List rules that are enforced for the entire school.
- Describe the process for students who are referred to administrators for disciplinary action beyond the classroom teacher.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Look around your assigned classroom for a list of the classroom rules posted. If they are not posted, ask your cooperating teacher for a copy.
   Only one rule - Golden Rule
3. Ask the students and/or the teacher what the consequences for breaking the classroom rules are. reinforce pos. behavior

4. Ask the teacher how s/he maintains a classroom environment conducive for learning including controlling talking, encouraging on-task behavior, re-directing off-task behavior, passing out and picking up papers, beginning and ending a lesson, and managing materials for student use.

5. Examine a copy of the student handbook. Provide a copy of the school rules and describe the consequences of breaking these rules.

6. Describe what process a teacher must go through to make a disciplinary referral. form to fill out

7. Write up your observations, discoveries, and reflections and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Curriculum Issues

Objectives:

- List objectives from the Georgia Quality Core Curriculum that are being addressed in your assigned field experience classroom.
- Describe the ways your cooperating teacher is assessing whether or not his/her students are achieving the objectives.
- Identify the standardized tests that the students in your assigned school take before they are promoted out of the school or graduate.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Ask your cooperating teacher if you may see his/her lesson plans, course, guide, or other document that may indicate which QCC's s/he is addressing in the course.

3. Listen to the teacher's questioning, watch student activities, and examine homework, worksheets, quizzes and tests to ascertain when and how the achievement of the objectives is assessed.

4. Ask a teacher, administrator, or school counselor to identify the standardized tests that all students in the school take as they progress through the grades offered at the school.

5. Write up your observations, discoveries, and reflections and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Evidence of Technology

Objectives:

- Determine the hardware technologies available at your school placement.
- Determine the software available at your school placement.
- Describe accessibility to technology by teachers and students.
- Observe and/or identify some uses of technology by teachers for management and instruction.
- Reflect on the effectiveness of the use of technology for management and instruction.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Use the next page to provide the following information pertaining to the objectives:

   a. Go to the media center and the computer lab (if available) in the school and identify sample available hardware and software. Include traditional technologies such as overheads, filmstrip projectors, audio equipment, etc.
   b. Visit the computer lab (if available), media center, and classrooms. Describe the numbers of computers and their organization.
   c. Explain how your cooperating teacher uses technology to teach and to manage information (grades, worksheets, etc.). Observe a lesson that integrates technology into instruction if possible.
   d. **Reflect** on your observations and your thoughts on the effectiveness of technology for instruction.

3. Turn the next pages into your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
Evidence of Technology

Name Melody Rohlfs
Cooperating Teacher Ms. Watson
Grade/Subject 5th
School Baxter Elementary
Date _____
EDUC 2201 Prof. Dr. Terry

Software and Hardware Available

Organization (physical arrangement)

Place	Hardware	Software
Media Center	computers / lab tops television filmstrip projector overheads lazer disc close circuit tv system video camera digital camera	Athena Search Online Reasources Accelerated Reader Numbers under cover World Book Encyclopedia Word Muncher Ultimate Childrens Encyclopedia
Computer Lab computers around 3 walls, screen on front wall, laptop off desk	25 computers teacher laptop television / VCR printer AV projector	A to Zap Accelerated Reader Go cabulary Program Hyper studio Inspiration 5 Inspiration 6 Kid Pix Studio
Classroom	2 computers overhead radio	Kid works Deluxe Map Machine Math Muncher Microsoft Excel Word Power Point 97 Numbers Under cover
Other		Read Write & Type Student Writing Center Sunbuddy Math Playhouse Time Liner Type to Learn

Place	Hardware	Software
Media Center		
Computer Lab		
Classroom		
Other		

Technology in Instruction and Management

- **Describe how your cooperating teacher integrates technology into instructions and management.** (Describe a lesson you observed if possible.)

- **Describe your thoughts on using technology for instruction.**

Field Experience Workbook

EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Effective Teaching and Professionalism

Objectives:

- Observe and describe a lesson taught in your assigned field experience classroom.
- List attributes of an effective teacher and an effective lesson.
- Reflect on the effectiveness of the lesson you observed.
- Define professionalism as it relates to teaching.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text

2. Make arrangements with your cooperating teacher to observe a lesson s/he teaches. Fill out the observation form on the next page.

3. Consider the lesson you observed and describe attributes of the teacher and the teaching that made it effective.

4. Answer the following questions:

   a. What is "professionalism?"
   b. How does professionalism relate to teaching?
   c. Why is it important for a perspective teacher to be professional during field experiences?
   d. How is professionalism important to the EDUC 2201 student?

5. Turn your observation form, your reflection on the lesson, and the answers to the questions about professionalism in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience
Lesson Observation Form, page 2 of Effective Teaching topic sheet

School: Baker Elementary
Grade: 5th
Subject: Ms. Watson's Language Arts
EDUC 2201 Student: Melody Rehlfs

Describe the classroom environment: (physical set-up, population)
Students sit at their desks while teacher walks around giving instruction and individual help

Describe the lesson content: "power writing"
Main ideas
supporting details (major & minor)
forming paragraphs

Describe the activities of the teacher and the students:
- students identify something they are good at.
- Then give 3 supporting details (phrases)
- give 3 minor details to support major details
- Teacher tells students to identify title
- Students write a sentence for each detail forming a paragraph
- class goes to computer lab to create word maps and type or "publish" their paragraphs

Use the back of this sheet to reflect on the lesson.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Educational Reform

Objectives:

- Identify educational reform issues that are currently impacting the teachers and learners in your school.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Examine current newspapers and magazines to identify at least 2 current educational reform issues.

3. Interview teachers and/administrators in your school to find out the impact or potential impact these issues have on the school with regard to policy, procedures, and teaching.

4. **Reflect** on the issues you have identified and how you think they would impact you as a teacher.

5. Write up your information and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Field Experience Workbook
EDUC 2201

TOPIC: Historical Foundations

Objectives:

- Describe the history of your assigned school.

Activities:

1. Read the assigned chapter(s) in the text.

2. Examine the faculty or student handbook or other appropriate document or interview appropriate school personnel to discover the history of your assigned school. When was the school established? Did it always serve the grade levels it serves now? Has it always been in the same location? Have there been any additions? Are there any teachers and/or administrators who were on the original faculty? Etc.

3. Write up your observations, discoveries, and reflections and turn it in to your EDUC 2201 instructor.

Current Educational Issue Topics

NOTE: These topics may be CONTROVERSIAL. Use your judgment in deciding whether to discuss these topics with the educators with whom you are working in the schools. If you have established a rapport with them and have open lines of communication, please consider talking to them about these topics.

These topics were suggested by contact people in the local schools who wanted KSU students to take an in-dept look at their schools.

1. **Standardized Assessment -**
   Write your opinion of standardized testing as it occurs in the school where you are assigned to observe. You may want to refer to your textbook in answering this question, considering the textbook authors' position on the advantages and disadvantages of standardized tests.

2. **Assessing Teacher Effectiveness -**
   Research the tools used to evaluate teacher performance in the school system where you would like to work. What kind of instrument do the schools use? Does it seem fair? What are the consequences of a low mark in one or more performance areas? Does the lack of tenure for new teachers have any effect on this instrument?

3. **Ability Grouping -**
   Use your own judgment and talk to educators in determining what you think of ability grouping. Consider individual statements' needs and decide whether they are being well served by ability grouping.

4. **Drug Prevention in Schools -**
   Observe classes that entail lessons on drug prevention. Do they seem to you to be effective in preventing drug use among young people? Why or why not?

EDUC 2201 TEACHING AND SCHOOLS IN A CHANGING SOCIETY
FIELD EXPERIENCE
MID-TERM EVALUATION

Student _____
Cooperating Teacher _____
School _____
Grade/Subject _____

Evaluation Criteria	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
1. Did the student attend class on assigned days? (If no, indicate number of days missed:___)				
2. Was the student on time and present for the full time each day? (If no, indicate number of times tardy or leaving early:)				
3. Was the student's dress appropriate?				
4. Was the student assigned classroom and other tasks?				
5. Did the student voluntarily assist without being asked?				
6. Did the student use appropriate behavior in the classroom?				
7. Did the student use good judgment in supervising class activities and interacting with school personnel?				
8. Did the student interact positively with your pupils?				
9. Was the student's behavior professional at all times? (If no, please explain below.)				
10. Did your pupils respond positively to the KSU student?				
Sum Total of Each column (number of checks)				
Multiply by	**X 2.5**	**X 1**	**X .5**	**X 0**
Column Total				
Evaluation Total (Sum of All Columns):				

Comments: (Use back or additional sheets if necessary.)

Cooperating Teacher Signature and Date _____

EDUC 2201 Student Signature and Date _____

Field Experience Evaluation
EDUC 2201 TEACHING AND SCHOOLS IN A CHANGING SOCIETY
FINAL EVALUATION

Student _____
Cooperating Teacher _____
School _____
Grade/Subject _____

Evaluation Criteria	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
1. Did the student attend class on assigned days? (If no, indicate number of days missed:____)				
2. Was the student on time and present for the full time each day? (If no, indicate number of times tardy or leaving early:)				
3. Was the student's dress appropriate?				
4. Was the student assigned classroom and other tasks?				
5. Did the student voluntarily assist without being asked?				
6. Did the student use appropriate behavior in the classroom?				
7. Did the student use good judgment in supervising class activities and interacting with school personnel?				
8. Did the student interact positively with your pupils?				
9. Was the student's behavior professional at all times? (If no, please explain below.)				
10. Did your pupils respond positively to the KSU student?				
Sum Total of Each column (number of checks)				
Multiply by	**X 2.5**	**X 1**	**X .5**	**X 0**
Column Total				
Evaluation Total (Sum of All Columns):				

Comments: (Use back or additional sheets if necessary.)

Cooperating Teacher Signature and Date _____

EDUC 2201 Student Signature and Date _____

Appendix I

Bagwell College of Education Guide to Technology Skills

Bagwell College of Education
Professional Teacher Education Unit (PTEU)

Guide to Instructional Technology Skills

Required
for Teacher Education Majors

1999-2000

The Infusion of Technology Skills into Courses Required for Teacher Education Majors

Introduction

Upon conversion to semesters, there will no longer be a course that provides students with an introduction to instructional technology. Technology-related skills and knowledge will instead be developed, demonstrated, and implemented in other education and content area courses required of teacher education majors. These skills will be utilized and developed in carefully sequenced steps that are appropriate for knowledge acquisition and application. The syllabi of the courses involved will state directly which technology-related skills and/or knowledge will be developed and utilized during completion of course assignments.

This handbook is intended as an information source for the students and faculty of the Bagwell College of Education/Professional Teacher Education Unit (PTEU). Students should consult with their advisors for clarification of information or to address questions or concerns. Faculty may address questions and concerns to their department chair. **Please note that the contents of this document might change as technology and entry level skills change.** Therefore, students should be certain to obtain current versions of the handbook as they apply for admission into teacher education, and faculty should be familiar with the latest handbook for advising and instructional purposes.

Rationale

It is believed that learning becomes more meaningful when information is provided in context. In this regard, pre-service teachers will be better served by learning how to use instructional technology within the context of their content area and professional education courses. The Bagwell College of Education/PTEU has decided to infuse technology-related skills into appropriate courses so that the student may apply his or her knowledge within an educational context. (See Policy Statement, Appendix A.) In addition, by being exposed to teaching using technology within the professional education courses, students will receive an effective model for integrating technology into their own instruction once certified and employed.

Technology-Related Skills and Courses Involved

The following skills will be utilized in the courses indicated.

SKILL	COURSE
Basic Skills	
Terminology, disk care, operating systems, etc.	ENGL 1101 and 1102 (Prereq. for EDUC 2201 and EDUC 2204)
Word Processing	ENGL 1101 and 1102 (Prereq. for EDUC 2201 and EDUC 2204)
Electronic Mail	EDUC 2201, EDUC 2204
Research	
Internet, WWW, ERIC	EDUC 2201, EDUC 2204
Multimedia/Presentation Software	Courses in which an individual or group presentation is assigned (as in EDUC 3308). Also used in the English courses above.
Management/Productivity Software	
Databases, spreadsheets	EDUC 3302 (Curr. and Assessment)
Content Area Software and its Application	Methods courses (TOSS) and content Courses

SKILL	COURSE
Other media	
Interactive videodiscs, computer-based labs, and calculators	Methods courses (TOSS) and content courses

Process of Skills Assessment and Acquisition

Students will be surveyed upon taking their first education course (either EDUC 2201 or EDUC 2204). (See Survey, Appendix B.) The survey will serve primarily to inform students that they must either possess or must acquire specific technological skills throughout their progression through the program. If on the survey, a student identifies him or herself as being less than confident in any of the skills, he or she will be informed of the opportunities provided by the College of Education and other sources to acquire training and experience. It then becomes **the student's responsibility** to attain the identified skills through participation in workshops offered by the Technology Learning Center (TLC) in the Teacher Resource and Activity Center (TRAC), the KSU/DOE Educational Technology Center or other appropriate resources such as peers or colleagues, or instructional books or pamphlets available from various departments on campus. Note that students are not required to document participation in a formal workshop or course.

Schedules of workshops provided by campus agencies including the Bagwell College of Education may be obtained at the locations of these agencies including the KSU/DOE Educational Technology Center Annex, the TLC in TRAC (on the first floor of the education building), Academic Computing Services (on the fourth floor of the Burruss Building) as well as various other locations. Students are encouraged to make note of postings and to check schedules as soon as a need for instruction is identified.

A second survey may be given to teacher education students during their student teaching experience. The purpose of the second survey will be to assess any change in confidence that might have occurred in the student as a result of participating in the teacher education program. On this survey, the student may be asked to report on the frequency with which he or she utilizes instructional technology during the student teaching experience and in what capacity.

Specific Skills

The following is a more detailed list of skills that are expected to be utilized in the professional education sequence and content area courses. If a student does not possess the skills listed, it is the student's responsibility to seek training. This list is not meant to be all inclusive.

I. Basic skills
- A. Computer terminology such as hard drive, CPU, floppy disk, memory, RAM, etc.
- B. Operating systems - Mac OS **or** Windows
- C. Formatting disks

II. Word processing
- A. Creating, saving, and retrieving files
- B. Formatting a document (spacing, alignment, margins, tabs)
- C. Manipulating text (font, size, styles)
- D. Printing

III. Electronic mail
- A. Receiving mail
- B. Sending mail

IV. Research
- A. Accessing the Internet and World Wide Web using search engines
- B. Searching ERIC for documents on a specific topic

V. Multimedia/Presentation Software - Creating linear and/or nonlinear presentations using packages such as Power Point and/or HyperStudio.

VI. Management/Productivity Software

A. Creating a spreadsheet that includes:

1. Textual information appropriate for student records (name, address, parents, phone numbers, etc.)
2. Numerical information appropriate for calculation of student grades

B. Manipulating a spreadsheet by sorting information (for example, by last name or final grade)

VII. Content Area Software and its Application*

A. Selection of content area software appropriate to instructional objectives

B. Evaluation of content area software in consideration of instructional objectives

*Instruction and experience regarding these skills will be provided within the content area and professional education courses.

Implications for Faculty

Because teacher education students are now expected to demonstrate proficiency in the use of instructional technology, teacher education faculty are also expected to be exemplary models of effective instruction that includes technology. This expectation includes the demonstration of the skills identified for students as a minimal level of proficiency. Faculty may wish to explore training opportunities available to them in order to bring themselves to a more proficient level of technological expertise. The opportunities for training that exist for teacher education students also exist for faculty. Faculty are encouraged to explore these opportunities and schedule participation as is needed.

It should also be noted that the instructor's use of technology in his or her own instruction should demonstrate a model of effective integration. Principles of using technology to instruct and manage instruction should be infused into course content as is appropriate.

More Information

Further information addressing questions and concerns should be directed to advisors (for students) and department chairs (for faculty).

Appendix A
Policy Statement

Policy Statement Regarding the Infusion of Technology Skills into Courses Required for Teacher Education Majors

Upon conversion to semesters, there will no longer be a course that provides students with an introduction to instructional technology. Technology-related skills and knowledge will instead be developed, demonstrated, and implemented in other education and content area courses required of teacher education majors. These skills will be in carefully sequenced steps that are appropriate for knowledge acquisition and application. The syllabi of the course involved will state directly which technology-related skills and/or knowledge will be developed and utilized during the course. The following specific skills will be utilized in the courses indicated.

SKILL	COURSE
Basic Skills	
Terminology, disk care, operating systems, etc.	**ENGL 1101, 1102 (prereq. for EDUC 2201 and EDUC 2204)**
Word Processing	**ENGL 1101, 1102 (prereq. for EDUC 2201 and EDUC 2204)**
Electronic Mail	**EDUC 2201, EDUC 2204**
Research	
Internet, WWW, ERIC	**EDUC 2201, EDUC 2204**
Multimedia/Presentation Software	**Courses in which an individual or group presentation is assigned (as in EDUC 3308). Also used in ENGL 1102, a prerequisite for the introductory education courses, EDUC 2201 and EDUC 2204.**
Management/Productivity	
Databases, spreadsheets	**Curriculum and Assessment course, EDUC 3302**
Content Area Software and its Application	**Methods courses and content courses**
Other media	
Interactive videodiscs, computer-based labs, and calculators	**Methods courses and content courses**

Students will be surveyed upon taking their first education course (either EDUC 2201 or EDUC 2204). The survey will serve primarily to inform students that they must either possess or acquire specific technological skills throughout their progressions through the program. If on the survey, a student identifies him or herself as being less than confident in any of the skills, he or she will be informed of the opportunities provided by the College of Education to acquire training and experience. Students may also be surveyed again during student teaching as a means of assessing any change in confidence that might have occurred during the program and to obtain information regarding the use of technology by the student during the student teaching experience.

Policy approved by the Teacher Education Council on February 18, 1997.

Appendix B
Survey

Survey of Instructional Technology Skills

In ENGL 1101 and 1102 at KSU, and as a part of your EDUC 201 and/or EDUC 204 course, you used email, the Internet, and the World Wide Web (WWW). Throughout your remaining coursework in education, you will be required to utilize more advanced technology-related knowledge and skills. This survey asks you to rate your confidence regarding your proficiency with these skills and serves to inform you of opportunities available to you for technology skills development or enhancement. Please note that should you rate yourself as less than confident in any particular skill, you are required at this time and on this survey to indicate where you will seek instruction. It then becomes **your responsibility** to follow through with your development plan. A list of upcoming technology workshops is available in the Technology Learning Center (TLC) of the Teacher Resource and Activity Center (TRAC).

PLEASE NOTE: *Your answers on this survey will in no way effect the decision regarding your admission to the teacher education program at Kennesaw State University.*

Name: _____ **SS#:** _____

Major: _____ **Email address:** _____

SKILL	SELF-RATING			WHERE I WILL SEEK INSTRUCTION (Mark only if rating is less than "confident.")
	Not confident	Confident	Very confident	
• **Basic computer literacy** - **Terminology** (CPU, hard drive, mouse, memory, software, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab Workshop ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____
- **Care and formatting of floppy disks** (DOS, Mac, Windows formats)	☐	☐	☐	
- **Operating systems** (Macintosh and Windows)	☐	☐	☐	
•**Word Processing** (Text input, edit, format, save, retrieve, print, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____

SKILL	SELF-RATING			WHERE I WILL SEEK INSTRUCTION (Mark only if rating is less than "confident.")
	Not confident	Confident	Very confident	
• **Electronic mail** (login, compose, send, reply, save, print, logoff)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____
• **Research** - **Internet** (search, download, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____
- **ERIC** (search, print, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____
• **Multimedia** - **Presentation software** (such as PowerPoint) (create, edit, present)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____
- **Authoring software** (such as HyperStudio) (create, edit, content area info.)	☐	☐	☐	☐ TRAC Computer Lab ☐ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ☐ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ☐ Other (specify) _____

SKILL	SELF-RATING Not confident	Confident	Very confident	WHERE I WILL SEEK INSTRUCTION (Mark only if rating is less than "confident.")
• Management/Productivity				
- Databases (create, search, update, sort, utilize, etc.)	❒	❒	❒	❒ TRAC Computer Lab ❒ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ❒ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ❒ Other (specify) _____
- Spreadsheets (create, search, update, sort, calculate, utilize, graphing data, etc.)	❒	❒	❒	❒ TRAC Computer Lab ❒ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ❒ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ❒ Other (specify) _____
• Experience with content area software (programs especially designed for math, science, lang. arts, & social studies instruction.)	❒	❒	❒	❒ TRAC Computer Lab ❒ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ❒ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ❒ Other (specify) _____
• Integrating technology into instruction (strategies, resources, activities, etc.)	❒	❒	❒	❒ TRAC Computer Lab ❒ Educ. Tech. Center Workshop ❒ KSU Info. Tech. Services Workshop ❒ Other (specify) _____

This survey will be placed in your advisement file for future reference. Again, please be advised that this survey serves only to inform you that technology-related knowledge and skills will be utilized throughout the remainder of your education studies. Proficiency in technology is necessary to complete specific assignments in various courses. If you do not possess the skills described above, it is **your responsibility (not your advisor's or your course instructor's)** to obtain information regarding opportunities for instruction.

Appendix II

Georgia Professional Standards Commission

Code of Ethics



Georgia Professional Standards Commission

Effective July 1, 1999

THE CODE OF ETHICS FOR EDUCATORS

Download as a pdf

Introduction

The Code of Ethics for Educators defines the professional behavior of educators in Georgia and serves as a guide to ethical conduct. The Professional Standards Commission has adopted standards which represent the conduct generally accepted by the education profession. The code protects the health, safety and general welfare of students and educators, ensures the citizens of Georgia a degree of accountability within the education profession, and defines unethical conduct justifying disciplinary sanction.

Definitions

"Certificate" refers to any teaching, service, or leadership certificate, license, or permit issued by authority of the Professional Standards Commission.

"Educator" is a teacher, school or school system administrator, or other education personnel who holds a certificate issued by the Professional Standards Commission and persons who have applied for but have not yet received a certificate. For the purposes of the Code of Ethics for Educators, "educator" also refers to paraprofessionals, aides, and substitute teachers.

"Student" is any individual enrolled in the state's public or private schools from preschool through grade 12 or any individual age 18 or under.

"Complaint" is any written and signed request from a local board, the state board, or one or more individual residents of this state filed with the Professional Standards Commission alleging that an educator has breached one or more of the standards in the Code of Ethics for Educators.

"Revocation" is the invalidation of any certificate held by the educator.

"Denial" is the refusal to grant initial certification to an applicant for a certificate.

"Suspension" is the temporary invalidation of any certificate for a period of time specified by the Professional Standards Commission.

"Reprimand" or **"Warning"** admonishes the certificate holder for his or her conduct. The reprimand or warning cautions that further unethical conduct will lead to a more severe action.

"Monitoring" is the quarterly appraisal of the educator's conduct and performance by the Professional Standards Commission through contact with the educator and his or her employer. The Commission specifies the length of the monitoring period.

Standards

Standard 1: Criminal Acts - An educator should abide by federal, state, and local laws and statutes. Unethical conduct includes the commission or conviction of a felony or misdemeanor offense, including DUI/BUI, but excluding minor traffic violations such as speeding, following too closely, improper lane change, etc. As used herein, "conviction" includes a finding or verdict of guilt, a plea of guilty, or a plea of *nolo contendere*.

Standard 2: Abuse of Students - An educator should always maintain a professional relationship with all students, both in and outside the classroom. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- committing any act of child abuse, including physical and emotional abuse;
- committing any act of cruelty to children or any act of child endangerment;
- committing or soliciting any unlawful sexual act;
- committing any act of sexual harassment;
- soliciting, encouraging, or consummating a romantic or inappropriate relationship with a student (including dating a student) whether written, verbal, or physical; and
- furnishing alcohol or illegal/unauthorized drugs to any student or allowing a student to consume alcohol or illegal/unauthorized drugs.

Standard 3: Alcohol or Drugs - An educator should refrain from the abuse of alcohol or drugs during the course of professional practice. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- being on school premises or at a school-sponsored activity involving students while under the influence of, possessing, using, or consuming illegal or unauthorized drugs; and
- being on school premises or at a school-sponsored activity involving students while under the influence of, possessing, using, or consuming alcohol.

Standard 4: Misrepresentation or Falsification - An educator should exemplify honesty and integrity in the course of professional practice. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- falsifying, deliberately misrepresenting, or omitting professional qualifications, criminal history, college or staff development credit and/or degrees, academic award, and employment history when applying for employment and/or certification or when recommending an individual for employment, promotion, or certification;
- falsifying, deliberately misrepresenting, or omitting information regarding

compliance reports submitted to federal, state, and other governmental agencies;
- falsifying, deliberately misrepresenting, or omitting information regarding the evaluation of students and/or personnel including improper administration of any standardized tests (changing test answers, copying or teaching identified test items, unauthorized reading of the test to students, etc.);
- falsifying, deliberately misrepresenting, or omitting reasons for absences or leaves; and
- falsifying, deliberately misrepresenting, or omitting information submitted in the course of an official inquiry/investigation.

Standard 5: Public Funds and Property - An educator entrusted with public funds and property should honor that trust with a high level of honesty, accuracy, and responsibility. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- misusing public or school-related funds or property;
- failing to account for funds collected from students or parents; and
- submitting fraudulent requests for reimbursement of expenses or for pay.

Standard 6: Improper Remunerative Conduct - An educator should maintain integrity with students, colleagues, parents, patrons, or businesses when accepting gifts, gratuities, favors, and additional compensation. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- soliciting students or parents of students to purchase equipment, supplies, or services from the educator in a private remunerative capacity;
- accepting gifts from vendors or potential vendors for personal use or gain where there may be the appearance of a conflict of interest;
- tutoring students assigned to the educator for remuneration unless approved by the local board of education or superintendent.

Standard 7: Confidential Information - An educator should comply with state and federal laws and local school board policies relating to the confidentiality of student records, unless disclosure is required or permitted by law. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to sharing of confidential information concerning student academic and disciplinary records, personal confidences, health and medical information, family status and/or income, and assessment/testing results.

Standard 8: Abandonment of Contract - An educator should fulfill all of the terms and obligations detailed in the contract with the local board of education or education agency for the duration of the contract. Unethical conduct includes but is not limited to:

- abandoning the contract for professional services without the prior release from the contract by the employer; and
- willfully refusing to perform the services required by a contract.

Standard 9: Failure to Make a Required Report - An educator should file reports of a breach of one or more of the standards in the Code of Ethics for Educators, child abuse (O.C.G.A. §19-7-5), or any other required report. Unethical conduct includes the failure to make a required report.

Standard 10: Professional Conduct - An educator should demonstrate conduct that follows generally recognized professional standards. Unethical conduct is any conduct that seriously impairs the certificate holder's ability to function professionally in his or her employment position or conduct that is detrimental to the health, welfare,

discipline, or morals of students (inappropriate language, physical altercations, inadequate supervision, inappropriate discipline, etc.).

Reporting

Educators are required to report a breach of one or more of the Standards in the Code of Ethics for Educators. Educators should be aware of local policies and procedures and/or the chain of command for reporting unethical conduct. Complaints filed with the Professional Standards Commission must be in writing and must be signed by the complainant (parent, educator, personnel director, superintendent, etc.).

The Commission notifies local, state, and national officials, including the NASDTEC Clearinghouse, of disciplinary actions taken.

Disciplinary Action

The Professional Standards Commission is authorized to suspend, revoke, or deny certificates, to issue a reprimand or warning, or to monitor the educator's conduct and performance after an investigation is held and notice and opportunity for a hearing are provided to the certificate holder. Any of the following grounds shall be considered cause for disciplinary action against the holder of a certificate:

- unethical conduct as outlined in The Code of Ethics for Educators, Standards 1-10 (PSC Rule 505-2-.03);
- disciplinary action against a certificate in another state on grounds consistent with those specified in the Code of Ethics for Educators, Standards 1-10 (PSC Rule 505-2-.03);
- order from a court of competent jurisdiction that the certificate should be suspended for non-payment of child support (O.C.G.A. §19-6-28.1 and §19-11-9.3);
- notification from the Georgia Higher Education Assistance Corporation that the educator is in default and not in satisfactory repayment status on a student loan guaranteed by the Georgia Higher Education Assistance Corporation (O.C.G.A. §20-3-295);
- violation of any other laws and rules applicable to the profession (O.C.G.A. §16-13-111); and
- any other good and sufficient cause.

An individual whose certificate has been revoked, denied for disciplinary reasons, or suspended may not be employed as an educator, paraprofessional, aide, or substitute teacher.

Authority O.C.G.A. 20-2-200; 20-2-981 through 20-2-984.5

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Appendix III

Using WebCT at

KSU

k s u **u p c l o s e**

Kennesaw State University

EXCEEDING EXPECTATIONS

Welcome to WebCT Version 3.1
KSU Electronic Course Pages

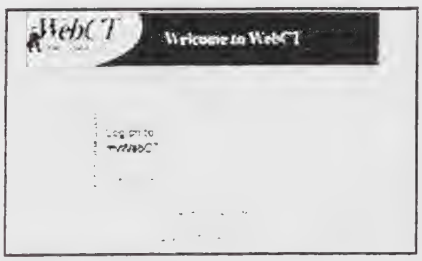
WebCT is a online course management system which allows us to have a virtual electronic classroom to support the various classroom activities we will be doing this semester. As a result of us using the WebCT system, you will be able to have 24 hour online access to our course syllabus, class assignments, course outline and many other features we use everyday. The system is fairly easy to use and is accessible in any open lab on campus, from home or anywhere that has Internet access. If you would like to access WebCT from home you will need to have Internet access and it is recommended that you use either Netscape Navigator 3.0 or higher or Microsoft Explorer 3.0 or higher as your web browser. The following instructions will help you access and interact with the WebCT system.

These instructions will assist you in Accessing the WebCT System, Using the Electronic Classroom Discussion Forums, Using the Class Electronic Email, and Understanding the Features of WebCT

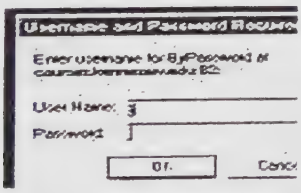
Accessing the WebCT System

Open your web browser and go to

http://online.kennesaw.edu



A box will pop up asking your for your User Name and Password



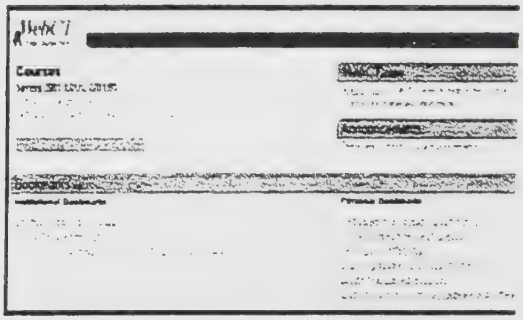
Your User Name will be given to you in

NOTE: Your User Name will be the san

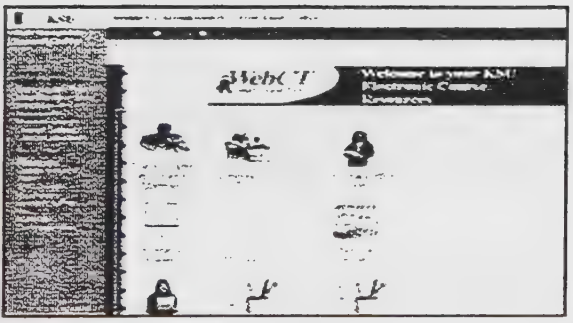
Your initial password is the same as you
also be the same for all your WebCT co

Note: We strongly suggest that you change your WebCT password at the beginning of the semester. Char
change your registeration PIN.

You should then see a list of all your courses that use WebCT for the current semester.



Click on the course you wish to enter.

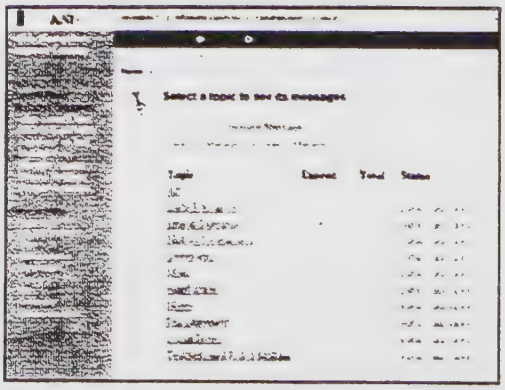


Once you have successfully logged into home page for the course.

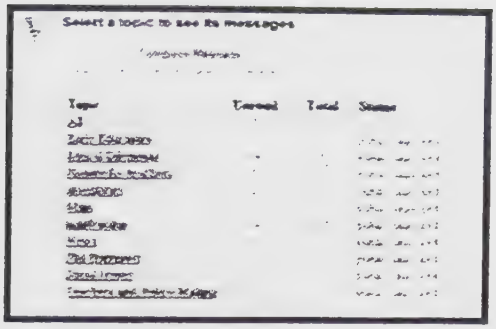
Using the Electronic Classroom Discussion Forum

From the Course Menu at the Left, select Discussions

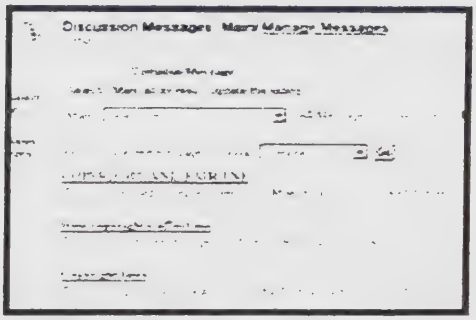
You should see a window that looks similar to this



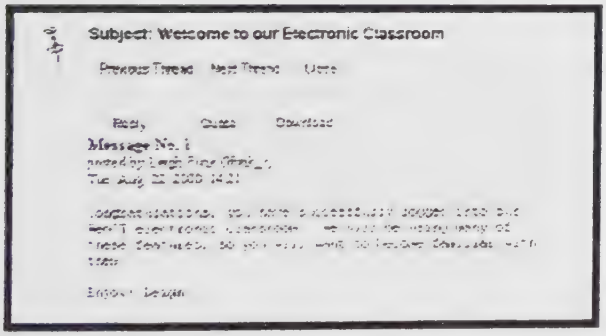
Click on the forum you wish to enter



You should then see a list of messages that have been posted to that discussion fourm.



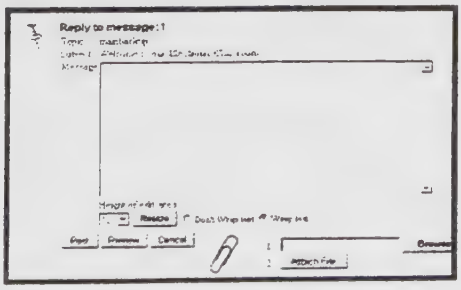
Click on the message you wish to read



There are several things you can do with or Download.

To Reply to a Message:

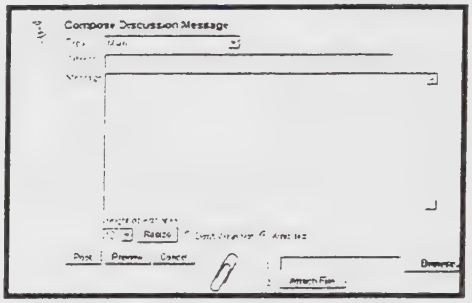
Click Reply at the top of the message then click in the box to type your reply



To Compose a Message:

Click on Compose Message from the top of the discussion area





Type in your subject then click in the text box to compose your message. Click POSTto actually submit your message.

Tip:
You will need to click ***UPDATE LISTI***
it

Using the Electronic Course Email System

The Email feature of WebCT is very similar to posting a message in the discussion forum.

Select Mail from the Course Menu to access theemail feature of WebCT

Click COMPOSE and a message box will appear in your window.

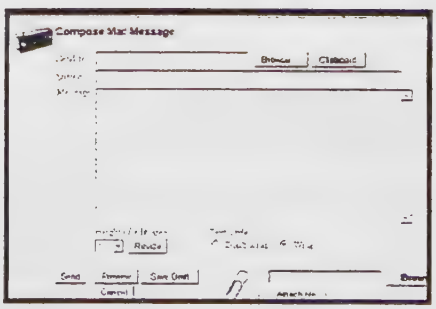


Click in the SEND TO box and click BROWSE if you would like to see a listing of students in our class. Highlight the student you would like to send an email message to and Click ok.

Click in the Subject box and type your subject.

Click in the larger box to type your message.

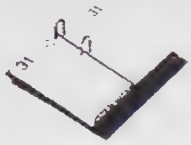
Click SEND after you have completed your message.



Pair up with one of your classmates and send each other a message introducir

Check you email and send a REPLY back to that person.

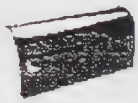
Standard Features of our WebCT Electronic Classroom



The calendar tool allows you to view the due dates of our assignments. A list of new events will pop up when you access the calendar. You can also print out a copy of the calendar to keep yourself organized.

The discussion forum is a place where the class will having online discussions.





Another nice feature of WebCT is that it provides us with an inclass email application. You can email any student in our class or the instructor using this email system. You can send also send a message to the whole class if you like.

You will find much of the course content information by clicking on the Contents Icon. This is where your online modules, syllabus, course outline etc can be found.



Your grades for this course will also be accessible online by clicking MY Grades. This is a secure system, so you will only be able to see the grades associated with your login name. You will not have access to the grades of your classmates.

As part of your online modules, you will be self-testing or practice testing as you complete a module. We may also take one of our quizzes online near the end of the semester.



Once you login using your initial



login and password, you can change your password. Just click on the PASSWORD icon. You will need to remember this password, and it is case sensitive.

For more information on how to use WebCT, please visit the WebCT Student Orientation Page at http://www.webct.com/oriented/

Appendix IV

Introduction

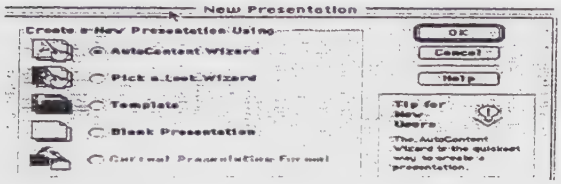
To

Microsoft Power Point

Creating a Power Point Presentation

To Create a Power Point Presentation:

1. Start Power Point
2. Choose what you want to do:



- Auto Content Wizard - takes you step by step to create a presentation. You simply choose the type of presentation you want to create and it gives the generic content that you replace with your own.
- Pick a Look Wizard - lets you pick what you want your presentation to look like
- Template - gives you a standard format or you can select one that you have used before.
- Blank Presentation - You start from scratch and build as you go.

3. Open an existing presentation.

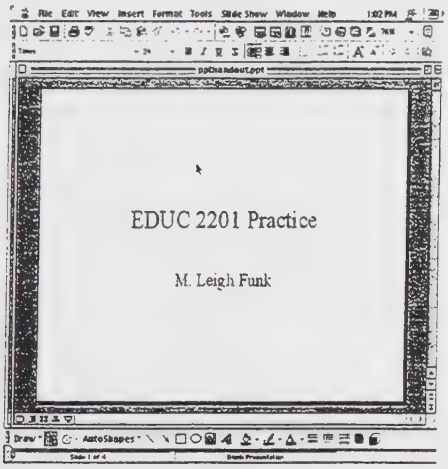
TIP BOX:

Once you have a presentation - SAVE SAVE SAVE - go ahead and give it a name!!!

4. Choose a slide layout - there are several slides for you to choose from. Try to vary the slides you use to keep the audience tuned in. The box on the right hand side tells you the general style or use for the slide you have highlighted.

☞ Let's begin by creating a Title Slide

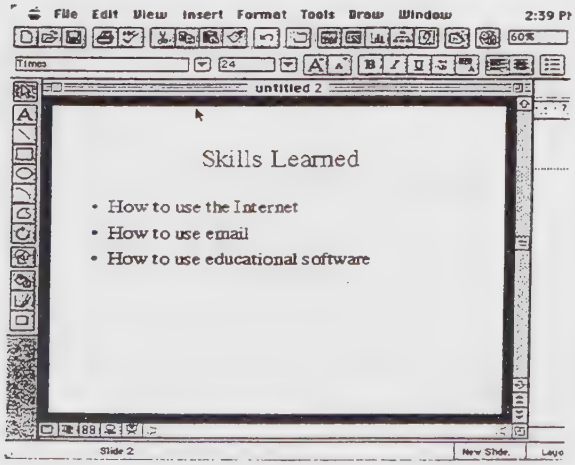
Your slide would look something like this:



- ***Choose a Title Slide***
- ***Name it EDUC 2201 Practice***
- ***Put your name in the next box***

☞ Next you need to add a new slide, to do so click NEW SLIDE at the bottom right hand corner of your screen, or go file New Slide.

Your slide may look something like this:



- ***Choose Bulleted list - second option***
- ***Insert skills learned in the heading***
- ***Insert 3 actual skills you have learned in this course.***

Customizing your slides:

To add text color:

1. Highlight the text you want to color, hold down the **A COLOR** button and choose the color you want.

To add indented bullets:

1. Place your cursor where you want the bullet to be inserted, and hit the **Forward or Back** arrows on the right side of you menu buttons to move the bullet.

To change the icon of your bullets:

1. Go to **View, Master, Slide Master**
2. Select by highlighting the level you want to change.
3. Go to **Format, Bullets**
4. Choose the style you want.

Repeat this process for each level you want to change.

To return to your slides, Go To **View, Slides.**

You may also change bullet styles on individual slides by highlighting the bullet or bullets and go to **Format, Bullets,** and then choose the style you want.

☞ Play around with the text on your slides to become familiar with these neat features.

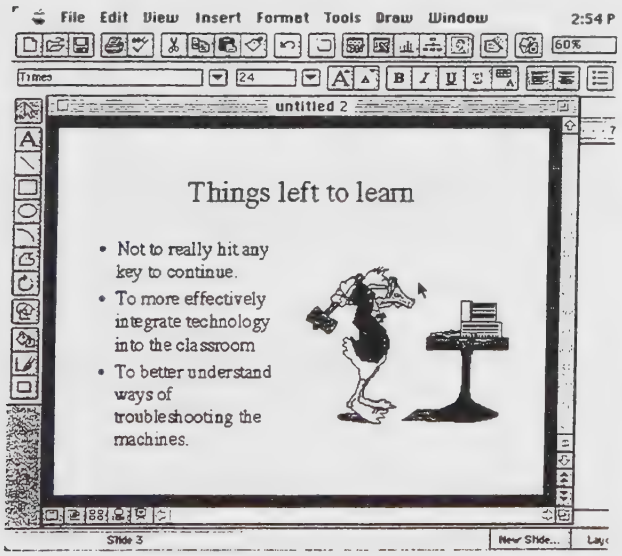
Tip Box

Learning to organize the information on your slides using bullets, colored font, and different text sizes can greatly improve your presentations.

☞ Now let's add some CLIP ART to our slides.

- *Start by creating a new slide*
- *Choose Text and Clip Art style slide from the various slides (if you hold your mouse over each slide style, the name will appear to the right of the box)*
- *Add title: Things Left to Learn*
- *Now we are ready to add the clip art.*

Your slide should look something like this:



1. Double Click on the Clip Art Icon on your slide or choose **Insert, Clip Art.**

2. From the Clip Art Gallery, pick a picture you want to insert and click OK.

VIEWING/EDITING/ARRANING Your Slides

Now that you have created several useful slides lets look at how you can VIEW/EDIT/ARRANGE your slides. These choices are located at the bottom left hand corner of your screen. Each icon will tell you what view it is when you place the cursor on it for a second.

☞ Click on each of these views to see the different features each provides.

1. Slide View - What you have been working in so far.

2. Outline View - Gives you a detailed outline of the headings and subheadings of each of your slides.

3. Notes Pages View - Places the slide at the top of the page, and gives you the bottom half of the page to type you notes or other important information you want to say during your presentation.

4. Slide Sorter View - Allows you to re-organize your slides as well as to create transitions and build effects.

> *Tip Box*
>
> *To re-arrange your slides:*
>
> - *Highlight the slide you want to move by clicking once on the slide*
> - *Drag it where you want it to be placed (you will see a vertical line appear in front of your slide. Continue to move the slide until that line is where you want the slide to be place.*

4. Slide Show View - This makes a full screen of each of your slides. Use this view when presenting.

Templates and Backgrounds:

To add style template: A design template will be applied to EVERY slide

1. Go to **Format, Apply Design**

2. Pick a style you like and hit OK.

☞ Follow these steps to play around with the different designs. You can simply replace one design by following the same steps to select a different design.

To add a background: A different background can be created for each slide

1. Go to **Format, Slide Background**

2. Choose a shade style, choose color, and adjust darkness and lightness as needed. Play around with the different styles.

3. Choose either **Apply** to apply the background to the individual slide you are on, or choose **Apply to all** to apply the background to all your slides.

Transitions and Effects

Transitions determine how your slides will look as they move from one to another or as they transition themselves.

☞ Now create some transitions for your slides:

1. Go the **Slide Sorter View**

2. Highlight the slide you want to transition

3. Pull down the Transition box on left side of your tool bar

4. Highlight the transition you want i.e. cover up, cover left etc.

5. You will then have a small transition icon under the slide to let you know a transition has been selected for that slide.

Tip Box

*You will only be able to see the actual transitions after you select the **Slide Show View** to run your presentation.*

EFFECTS determine how the content of your slides will reveal themselves during the presentation.

☞ Try your hand at creating some effects.

1. Go to **Slide Sorter View**
2. Highlight the slide you want to build
3. Pull down the Build box on the middle to right side of your tool bar
4. Highlight the build you want i.e. Fly from Right, Fly from Bottom, etc.
5. You will then have a small build icon under the slide to let you know a build has been selected for that slide.

Tip Box

Animation is also considered an effect. You can create the animation effects by selecting SLIDE SHOW from the menu bar and then choosing either PRESET ANIMATION or CUSTOM ANIMATION

TIP Box

Again, you will only be able to see the effects briefly as you select them, you will need to go to SLIDE SHOW to view your effects.

☞ Next Steps

If you would like to learn more about creating power point presentations, the WWW has numerous tutorials ranging from beginning to highly advanced. Simply do a search for Power Point Tutorials and find one that meets your individual needs.

Appendix V

Mentoring

and

Tutoring

COBB COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ENRICHMENT PROGRAM

AND

VOLUNTEER KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

TUTORING HANDBOOK

Enriching the lives of today's youths through education



Goals for Tutors/Mentors

1. To utilize appropriate materials and activities to help meet "specific academic needs," as prescribed by the schools.

2. To help build a positive self-image by providing a friendly, supportive relationship and environment within which students can enjoy learning.

3. To provide feedback on student's performance.

4. To communicate concerns regarding students being tutored, their work and the program to the site coordinator.

5. To be faithful in attendance and sign the attendance roster.

6. To enjoy the experience.

General Tips and Some Approaches, which have Proven Valuable:

In general, the less you do for your student, the better. Although it is quicker, easier, and less frustrating for a tutor to do a problem or an assignment, it is of little permanent help to the student. Help the student learn *how* to *do* his or her own work.

A good tutor will spend most of the time asking questions, listening, and helping the student to think for him or herself, rather than lecturing to the student:

- talk to children, don't lecture
- work on hands-on activities
- make learning real-life with concrete materials and situations
- read real books that enhance the child's curiosity
- target individual needs of the learner
- allow freehand art, writing stories of personal experiences
- set agenda, rules, and expectations
- give praise, encouragement and feedback frequently
- watch children's faces. Is the child intellectually engaged, eager and happy during learning? If they look bored and scared, they probably *are* bored and scared and not learning.

IMPORTANT

Tutor/Mentor Guidelines

- Be yourself and be genuine.
- Attempt to build a relationship with the student that is characterized by caring, trust, and honesty.
- Assist the student in developing good study habits.
- Assist the student in developing clarifying special interests and aptitudes.
- Help the student develop a positive self-image.
- Place an increased emphasis on the prevention of problems in the life of the student.
- Help the student learn how to work in a group and to realize the need for getting along with others.
- Assist the student in the appreciation if individual differences.
- **DON'T COUNSEL,** just **LISTEN, LISTEN, LISTEN**

IMPORTANT

TIPS FOR TUTORS

The following list of tips for tutors is adapted from the Charlotte, North Carolina Schools Manual titled *Partners in Education.*

Tips For Establishing Rapport:

1. Dress for success.

2. Relax and be yourself. Students are quick to see pretensions.

3. Personal concern for your student is one of your greatest assets as a tutor. Tutors should work to build a relationship of mutual confidence with their students. Keep in mind that what you do is as much a language as what you say.

4. Be sure that you and your student have names straight. Learn nicknames, if any. It will help to write down your name and give it to the student. It is appropriate for the pupil to call you "Miss Jane" or "Mr. John." Students are often hesitant to communicate with tutors when they are uncertain of names.

5. To build rapport, talk with the student about mutual interest and above all, listen. Do not be afraid to discuss what academic/subject problems the student is having and what you as a tutor will be trying to do.

Tips For the First Session In Tutoring:

1. Be sure you have materials/activities to assist with your tutoring.

2. Begin tutoring at a level well within the grasp of the student. This will provide an atmosphere of success. Remember, many students have had little success in school and need many rewarding experiences to restore their self-confidence.

3. Indicate immediately whether the student's answers are right or wrong. Let him or her know you are pleased with a right answer. If the student is wrong, do not show disapproval, but look at the mistake as a challenge.

4. Keep charts of the student's individual progress to promote interest.

5. Try to devise problems for the student to solve, ones that are familiar to the student.

6. Complete the "Student Evaluation Form" at each tutoring session and return it to the student's folder.

"SO YOU WANT TO BE A TUTOR/MENTOR"

SUGGESTIONS FOR WHAT TO SAY

Here are some topics to consider sharing with students about yourself and your job:

JOB ENTRY
-how you got started in this job
-other jobs you have held
-skills you already had that you use now; how you acquire them
-your recommendations to others for acquiring these same skills
-job you chose as a lifetime career or stepping stone
-related job for which you are now prepared

WHAT YOU NEED TO DO
-job description
-major tasks, sub-tasks
-equipment or tools you need
-description of your typical day

WHAT YOUR WORK IS LIKE
-working hours
-salary range for this type of occupation
-fringe benefits (health insurance, retirement, credit unions, etc.)
-unions and/or professional organizations involved in your work
-working environment (noise, hazards, lighting, indoor/outdoor travel, special clothing, etc.)
-history of this kind of work
-what you produce (goods, services)
-interdependence of your job and other/jobs/products/industries
-where else in the community your kind of work is done
-government regulations affecting your work

HOW IT FEELS
-what you like and dislike about the job
-what you would change if you could
-avenues available to you for making suggestions on the job
-what you would rather do if you were not satisfied
-interpersonal skills you find most important and why
-underlying attitudes and values important to your job
-why you chose this type of work (with machines instead of people, for example)

(suggestions for what to say cont...)

HOW IT AFFECTS YOUR PERSONAL LIFE
-family time
-leisure time
-job-related skills you use elsewhere
-expanding interests
-adequate exercise
-general health
-tension-fatigue vs. Simulation-fulfillment-increases in energy

THE FUTURE OF YOUR WORK
-degree of opportunity for women and men regardless of race
-opportunities for advanced
-personal qualities needed
-employment projections: effects of technology and new knowledge on your work
-effect of the country's economic condition on your job
-hints you would give someone applying for your job
-other jobs you could do with these same skills

K-12 Student Interest Survey

1. What do you like most about school? _____

_____

2. What do you like to do in your spare time? _____

_____

3. What are some things about which you know a lot? _____

_____

4. What kind of books do you like most? _____

_____

5. What are some things about which you would like to know more? _____

_____

6. What interesting places have you visited? _____

_____

7. What are some places you would like to visit? _____

_____

8. If you could be a famous person, who would you be? _____

_____

9. Do you like music? _____ What kind? _____

10. What are you good at in school? _____

11. What do you think you might need extra help with in school? _____

_____

12. What is your favorite:

food? _____ sport? _____

color? _____ place? _____

TV show? _____ movie? _____

"SO YOU WANT TO BE A TUTOR/MENTOR"

THINGS TO TRY
WHEN COMMUNICATION GOES AWRY

Communicating with another person is one of the most difficult skills in the world. Everyone has experienced the frustration of just not getting through to someone else or of not understanding what someone else is trying to say. Following are some common problematic listeming situation and some ideas for resolving them. This is not a cookbook for successful listening. However, if you are having difficulty communicating with someone, use some of these ideas to help get your conversation on the right track.

WHEN THE CONVERSATION JUST WON'T GET GOING

- Gently invite the other person to talk more
  "Would you like to talk about it?"
  "I'd like to hear more whenever you're ready."
- Ask about a feeling that the person seems to be experiencing.
  "You seem upset today."
  "So you feel tired today."
- Tell about what you are feeling.
  "I feel kind of awkward when I first meet someone."
  "It's hard to know what to say."
  "I feel a little preoccupied with my work today."

WHEN YOU FEEL YOU NEED TO KNOW MORE

- Draw the person out with questions that gently ask for more information
  "How would you do that?"
  "What are some of the reasons why you did that?"
  "How did you feel about that?"
  "Could you tell me more about that?"

- Be attentive and encourage the person nonverbally.
  -Soft eye contact.
  -Be silent, just listen with respect.
  -Sit facing the person, slightly forward with your arms uncrossed.
  -Nod, smile, give verbal signals that you're listening (e.g., uh-huh, really, hmm, etc.).
  -Put aside or limit any possible distractions.
  -Try not to place undue time restrictions on your conversation.

Student Evaluation Form

I. To be completed before tutoring session begins:

Student name: _____

Date: _____

Student Educational/Behavior needs: _____

_____

Mentor's Objectives: _____

_____

_____

II. To be completed at the end of the tutoring session:

Specific tasks completed by student: _____

_____

_____

Mentor's evaluation of student: _____

_____

_____

_____

Tutor's name: _____

Note: This form is to be completed by the tutor at EACH tutoring session and placed in the pupil's folder.

PUPIL GOAL AND ACTION PLAN

Name of Pupil _____

Name of Tutor _____

Date _____

Academic Goal for the Quarter:
(Should include one specific target, projected end result, and time frame)

_____

_____

_____

_____

Academic Action Plan: (Steps to achieve goal)

_____

_____

_____

_____

Personal Goal:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Action Plan For Personal Goal:

_____

_____

_____

_____

THINGS TO DO WITH YOUR STUDENT

LANGUAGE ARTS

PRIMARY:

1. Ask your child to write the last names of five people he/she knows, then arrange the names in alphabetical order.
2. Group words in pairs that have similar meanings. Example: happy'glad, big/large, etc.
3. Use a newspaper ad to make a grocery list.
4. When reading with your child, ask him/her if the story is an adventure, a mystery, a comedy, etc., and why?
5. Write the names of specific colors in alphabetical order
6. Write three verbs for showing action for each noun, using the following:
   rabbit_____ girl_____ airplane_____ boy_____
   wind_____ dog_____ bird_____ car_____
7. Ask your child to complete the following phrases that show comparison:
   as smooth as_____ as hard as_____ as sharp as_____
   as dry as_____ as tough as_____ as cold as_____
8. Write several sentences without capital letters. Ask your chikd to circle the letters that he/she should capitalize.
9. Have your child write or tell how he/she would finish this story starter: "The funniest thing happened to me on the way to school_____"
10. Ask your child to list his/her favorite television programs. Then have him/her place each in one of the following categories:
    comedy adventure/action suspense musical drama

INTERMEDIATE:

1. Write the verbs talked. crept, started, and laughed. Then ask your child to write a word after each verb that tells how or when the action was done. Example: ran swiftly.
2. Have your child write a word that begins with br and that is the opposite of the word you say. Example: **narrow - broad**
3. Ask your child to write the headings: He, She, and They. As you read each word below, have your child write under her BEST headings.
   Aunt, uncle, class, lady, tribe, group, men, girl, boy
4. See how many words you and your child can write that ends in **ate**, as in **date**. Score one point for 4-letter words, 3 points for 5-letter words and 6 letter words.
5. Phrases that show a comparison, like as warm as toast, are called similes. Have your child make up some original similies.
   as hard as_____ as smooth as_____ as sharp as_____
6. Have your child complete each pair:
   Water is to ship as air is _____ Bear is to den as bee is to_____
   Claw is to bird as fin is to_____ Story is to read as song is to_____
7. Have your child tell which of these words should always be capitalized and explain why.
   new york, book, Tuesday, october, tonya, holiday, halloween, girl, june, food, tommy
8. Nouns name a person, place, or thing. Have your child write three nouns thast name people, three nouns that name places, and three nouns that name things.
9. Show your child picture from a magazine or book. Ask your shild to write one sentence telling something about the picture.

INTERMEDIATE

1. Ask your child to draw a map of their neighborhood/community. Have him/her include their school, fire department, police station, library, hospital, movie theater, sotres, etc....
2. Discuss various signs that are common such as STOP signs, WALK/DO NOT WALK signs. Mention the importance of these signs.
3. Name a group of workers and have your child identify where they work
   Doctor, nurse, ambulance driver_____
   Butcher, clerk, cashier_____
   Judge, lawyer, deputy, clerk_____
4. Ask your child to tell you the product and environment for each worker:
   chemist_____ engineer_____ architect_____
   lawyer_____ dentist_____ plumber_____
   pediatrician_____ pharmacist_____ nurse_____

SCIENCE

PRIMARY

1. Ask your child to put the adult animal's name next to the baby's name. Ex.: kitten cat
   puppy_____ colt_____ piglet_____ duckling_____
2. Ask your child to write down all the things he/she ate yesterday. Then beside each group, have him/her write the correct plant/animal/mineral group.
3. Ask your child to write a list of all the things in the classroom or at home that would not operate without electricity. Have your child to circle the things they consider would be the worst to be without.
4. Blindfold your child and give him/her various objects to hold. Have him/her guess what the objects are by using his/her sense of touch/smell.
5. Ask your child to figure out the relationship between these body parts. Example: finger is to hand as toe is to foot.
   Tooth is to mouth as hair is to_____
   Wrist is to hand as ankle is to _____
6. On a piece of paper write DESERT ANIMALS and ARCTIC ANIMALS. See how many different animals you and your child can list under each heading. Then find out something about the people who live in the arctic region.
7. Write the headings WOOD, GLASS, METAL. Ask your child to list items found in the house that are made of these household materials.

INTERMEDIATE

1. Ask your child to write down all the things he/she ate yesterday. Then beside each food, have him/her write animal, plant, or mineral product.
2. Help your child list things in the house or classroom that would not work without electricity. Ask your child what they could use as an alternative.
3. Write the heading SOLID, LIQUID, GAS. Have your child write each of the following words under the correct heading: water,salt,sweet, oxygen,blood,helium. Ask your child to add two more under each heading.
4. Have your child list all the insects he/she can. Then together underling the ones he/she has actually seen. You may wish to have your child draw or write about the insects.
5. Ask your child to draw or write about the different weather patterns that occur during different seasons.
6. Blindfold your child. Place various objects into their hands to hold. Have him/her guess what the objects are by using his/her sense of touch and smell.
7. Write the words TASTE and HEAR. Then have your child write the following words under the correct the correct heading: growl, spicy, peppery, sweet, buzz, snarl, salty, screech, and whine. Ask your child to add more words to the lsit.

VOCABULARY LOG

Each week write down 4 new vocabulary words that you learn. **When you fill in all of the boxes, you will know 40 new words!**

1	11	21	31
2	12	22	32
3	13	23	33
4	14	24	34
5	15	25	35
6	16	26	36
7	17	27	37
8	18	28	38
9	19	29	39
10	20	30	40

220 Dolch Basic Sight Words

A
About
After
Again
All
Always
Am
An
And
Any
Are
Around
As
Ask
At
Ate
Away
Be
Because
Been
Before
Best
Better
Big
Black
Blue
Both
Bring
Brown
But
Buy
By
Call
Came
Can
Carry
Clean
Cold
Come
Could
Cut
Did
Do
Does
Done
Don't
Down
Draw
Drink
Eat
Eight
Every
Fall
Far
Fast
Find
First
Five
Fly
For
Found
Four
From
Full
Funny
Gave
Get
Give
Go
Goes
Going
Good
Got
Green
Grow
Had
Has
Have
He
Help
Her
Here
Him
His
Hold
Hot
How
Hurt
I
If
In
Into
Is
It
Its
Jump
Just
Keep
Kind
Know
Laugh
Let
Light
Like
Little
Live
Long
Look
Made
Make
Many
May
Me
Much
Must
My
Myself
Never
New
No
Not
Now
Of
Off
Old
On
Once
One
Only
Open
Or
Our
Out
Over
Own
Pick
Play
Please

Pretty
Pull
Put
Ran
Read
Red
Ride
Right
Round
Run
Said
Saw
Say
See
Seven
Shall
She
Show
Sing
Sit
Six
Sleep
Small
So
Some
Soon
Start
Stop
Take
Tell
Ten
Thank
That
The
Their
Them
Then
There
These
They
Think
This
Those
Three
To
Today
Together
Too
Try
Two
Under
Up
Upon
Us
Use
Very
Walk
Want
Warm
Was
Wash
We
Well
Went
Were
What
When
Where
Which
White
Who
Why
Will
Wish
With
Work
Would
Write
Yes
Yellow
You
Your

READING INVENTORY LEVELS

Preprimer Level

Primer Level 

First Reader Level 

Second Reader Level 

Third Reader Level 

Fourth Reader Level 

Fifth Reader Level

Sixth Reader Level 

Seventh Reader Level 

Eighth Reader Level 

Ninth Reader Level 

Tenth-Twelfth Reader Level 

WORD LISTS

1. can
2. green
3. see
4. ride
5. red
6. big
7. saw
8. three
9. make
10. book
11. play
12. said
13. look
14. an
15. help
16. funny
17. black
18. and
19. this
20. to
21. in
22. blue
23. me
24. get
25. down



1. mother
2. thank
3. two
4. what
5. good
6. where
7. yellow
8. cake
9. out
10. please
11. find
12. one
13. she
14. into
15. laugh
16. they
17. have
18. came
19. was
20. now
21. that
22. all
23. fly
24. away
25. your



1. around
2. can't
3. father
4. could
5. drop
6. many
7. paint
8. tell
9. why
10. every
11. cold
12. give
13. snow
14. found
15. once
16. much
17. ball
18. walk
19. children
20. brown
21. again
22. just
23. never
24. men
25. street

Independent—24–25 correct on a word list
Instructional—22–23 correct on a word list
Frustration—21 or fewer correct on a word list

WORD LISTS



1. together
2. write
3. pick
4. keep
5. breakfast
6. myself
7. carry
8. which
9. everyone
10. hold
11. these
12. always
13. friend
14. today
15. save
16. light
17. been
18. until
19. their
20. should
21. buy
22. better
23. hurt
24. does
25. grow



1. eight
2. escape
3. though
4. planet
5. magic
6. thankful
7. unusual
8. decide
9. earth
10. remember
11. close
12. mountain
13. idea
14. several
15. soup
16. special
17. ocean
18. country
19. travel
20. enough
21. protect
22. decide
23. mystery
24. built
25. strange



1. experience
2. theater
3. parachute
4. canoe
5. imitate
6. pollute
7. knowledge
8. dignity
9. enormous
10. prefer
11. decorate
12. vicious
13. original
14. protection
15. island
16. design
17. weight
18. contradict
19. predict
20. force
21. modern
22. critical
23. machine
24. legend
25. coward

Independent—24–25 correct on a word list
Instructional—22–23 correct on a word list
Frustration—21 or fewer correct on a word list

WORD LISTS

1. international
2. surgery
3. merchant
4. scientist
5. organize
6. territory
7. photograph
8. value
9. manage
10. grief
11. telegram
12. responsible
13. plateau
14. apparent
15. intense
16. horizon
17. image
18. qualify
19. argument
20. ceremony
21. amount
22. burden
23. navigate
24. gentle
25. region



1. competition
2. loathe
3. liberty
4. privacy
5. transparent
6. conviction
7. applause
8. contrary
9. antibiotic
10. microphone
11. pounce
12. sensitive
13. helicopter
14. moisture
15. technical
16. depression
17. symbol
18. transfusion
19. surf
20. particle
21. coyote
22. subconscious
23. associate
24. request
25. wreath



1. boulevard
2. ambitious
3. scaffold
4. collapse
5. horizontal
6. progressive
7. tolerate
8. independent
9. warden
10. domestic
11. implication
12. conceive
13. elusive
14. sculpture
15. famine
16. neutral
17. radius
18. exaggerate
19. ecstasy
20. terrain
21. algebra
22. monarch
23. exception
24. belligerent
25. alliance

Independent—24–25 correct on a word list
Instructional—22–23 correct on a word list
Frustration—21 or fewer correct on a word list

WORD LISTS



1. prescription
2. discipline
3. intrigue
4. apex
5. buffet
6. miscellaneous
7. universal
8. arrogant
9. discipline
10. competent
11. conservative
12. triumphant
13. adjacent
14. inconceivable
15. politician
16. docile
17. juvenile
18. rebuke
19. oppressive
20. rehearsal
21. yacht
22. browse
23. masquerade
24. embankment
25. quota



1. undergraduate
2. aggressive
3. priority
4. arduous
5. indispensable
6. insignia
7. aquatic
8. enviable
9. malicious
10. countenance
11. judicial
12. nutritional
13. desolation
14. environment
15. ornate
16. partisan
17. brazen
18. disobedient
19. suffice
20. ventilator
21. premature
22. legitimate
23. lucrative
24. industrialist
25. regime



1. devastate
2. philanthropy
3. assimilate
4. atrocious
5. exhilarate
6. heirloom
7. malinger
8. proprietor
9. legacy
10. malign
11. memoir
12. inaudible
13. callous
14. nautical
15. contemplate
16. legacy
17. kinetic
18. gregarious
19. consecrate
20. prolific
21. obtuse
22. fictitious
23. hypothesis
24. fallacy
25. charlatan

Independent—24–25 correct on a word list

Instructional—22–23 correct on a word list

Frustration—21 or fewer correct on a word list

READINESS

A. Word Recognition

1. Interested in words and symbols
2. Recognizes own name in print
3. Names upper-case letters
4. Names lower-case letters
5. Matches upper-case and lower-case letters
6. Identifies numerals 1-10

B. Word Meaning

1. Listening vocabulary adequate to understand ideas
2. Speaking vocabulary adequate to convey ideas
3. Comprehends meaning of: place words, quantitative words, and descriptive words
4. Classifies objects and pictures into logical categories
5. Aware that printed words represent spoken words

LEVEL 1

A. Word Recognition

1. Recognizes words with both upper and lower-case letters at beginning

2. Knows names of letters in sequence

3. Is able to identify in various settings, words usually found in preprimers and primers

LEVEL 2

A. Word Recognition

1. Recognizes 220 Dolch Basic Sight Words (by end of year)

2. Uses word form clues

B. Word Meaning

1. Multiple meanings of words

2. Synonymous meanings

3. Opposites

4. Words pronounced the same

LEVEL 3

A. Recognizes 220 Dolch Basic Sight Words

B. Word meaning

1. Comprehends and uses correctly; function words, direction words, action words, forms of address, career words, color words, metric words, curriculum words

LEVEL 4

A. Word Recognition

1. Knows new words in content fields

2. Recognizes similarities of known words

B. Word Meaning

1. Develops ability in getting meaning from context

3. Uses new words in sentences to show meaning

4. Knows punctuation

5. Use of map skills

C. Review Dolch Words

LEVEL 5

A. Word recognition of vocabulary in content areas

B. Meaning of words

1. Can define word read in context
2. Can provide synonyms, antonyms
3. Knows homophones
4. Knows homographs
5. Understands figurative and colorful expressions

LEVEL 6

A. Word Recognition

1. Uses context clues
2. Uses configuration clues
3. Uses language rhythms

B. Knows and uses prefixes and suffixes

C. Word meaning

1. Knows multiple meanings of words
2. Can associate words and feelings
3. Formal and informal language
4. Distinguishes between aided and unaided recall
5. Can hyphenate words
6. Can provide synonyms
7. Can provide antonyms
8. Understands homophones
9. Understands homographs
10. Can write metaphors
11. Can write similes

ADVANCED PART ONE

A. Word recognition in content

B. Identified compound words

C. Root words

1. Recognizes and understands concept

2. Knows meaning of common roots

D. Prefixes

1. Recognizes, knows concept

2. Knows meaning of common prefixes

E. Suffixes

1. Recognizes, knows concept

2. Knows meaning of common suffixes

F. Knows meaning of vocabulary terms

ADVANCED PART TWO

A. Increases vocabulary through wide reading

B. Organizes own word-study techniques

COMPREHENSION

READINESS

A. Interest

1. Wants to learn to read
2. Enjoys being read to
3. Shows interest in books and other printed materials

B. Ability

1. Adequate attention span

2. Remembers from stories read aloud; main ideas, names of characters, some major details

3. Can sequence events logically

4. Follows oral directions

5. Looks at books from front to back, from left-hand page to right-hand page

6. Aware of usual text progression from left to right, from top to bottom

COMPREHENSION LEVELS I & II

A. Understands that printed symbols represent objects or actions.

B. Can follow printed directions.

C. Can draw conclusions from given facts.

D. Can recall from stories read aloud: main idea, names of characters, important details, stated sequence.

E. Can recall after silent reading: main idea, names of characters, important details, stated sequence.

F. Can distinguish between real and imaginary events.

G. Uses context clues in word attack.

H. Can suggest or select an appropriate title for a story.

I. Can relate story content to own experiences

COMPREHENSION LEVELS III & IV

A. Can find main idea in story.

B. Can keep events in proper sequence.

C. Can draw logical conclusions.

D. Is able to see relationships.

E. Can predict outcomes.

F. Can follow printed directions.

G. Can read for a definite purpose.

H. Classify items.

I. Use index.

J. Alphabetize words by first two letters.

K. Knows technique of skimming.

L. Can determine what source to obtain information.

M. Use maps and charts.

Dear CEEP Tutor Volunteers:

Thank you so very much for tutoring a student in our CEEP Program. We would like you to volunteer again next semester, and, if possible, to work with the same child.

Please fill out the attached evaluation form and return it to the VKSU Office as soon as possible. All students who fill out and return this form will receive a free VKSU T-shirt as a thank you from the Volunteer Kennesaw Department.

Again, thank you for volunteering.

Cobb Educational Enrichment Program
Evaluation by KSU Tutors

Semester and year being evaluated _____

RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:
1. Excellent 2. Very Good 3. Good 4. Fair 5. Poor

1.	The CEEP volunteer experience has been valuable to me as a student.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	CEEP has enabled me to connect theory to practice.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Through CEEP tutoring/mentoring, I have developed a greater commitment to community service.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	CEEP has helped change my view about at-risk students.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	The training/orientation prepared me adequately for the CEEP program.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	The KSU students who served as on-site coordinators were helpful.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	The CEEP experience assisted in my personal and intellectual growth.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	My KSU professor gave extra credit or optional credit for the tutoring.	YES NO
9.	My KSU professor required a reflection paper about my CEEP experience.	YES NO

10. Positive elements about the program: _____

_____

11. Suggestions for improvement in the program: _____

_____

PLEASE RETURN COMPLETED FORM TO THE VOLUNTEER KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY.
STUDENTS COMPLETING THIS FORM AND RETURNING IT TO THE VKSU OFFICE WILL RECEIVE A VKSU T-SHIRT.
THANK YOU

THOSE WHO CAN, TEACH

By Kevin Ryan & James M. Cooper

PART FOUR

FOUNDATIONS



Just as the subjects of anatomy and chemistry are essential to the practice of medicine, certain areas of organized knowledge are essential to the practice of education. These areas, called the foundations of education, provide the intellectual underpinnings of educational practice.

This section covers several of these key areas: school governance, finance, philosophy, history, the law, and ethics. Truly professional teachers ground their daily practice in the wisdom gleaned from these foundational areas. The section concludes with a chapter on recent movements for educational reform, in which all the foundational components come to bear in the effort to improve our schools.

9 How Are Schools Governed, Influenced, and Financed?

CHAPTER PREVIEW

Very few beginning teachers are concerned about issues related to school governance and finance. The topic seems remote to them; it is something administrators and representatives of teacher organizations care about, but it does not seem particularly vital for beginning teachers concerned with learning how to survive in the classroom. We feel differently; we believe beginning teachers must have some understanding of the way schools and school systems operate, since they will be affected personally by governance and financial decisions. Not understanding how these decisions are made and how they might affect you as a teacher will reduce your effectiveness as a professional.

This chapter emphasizes that

- Legal responsibility for school governance belongs to the state. Traditionally, however, policy decisions and administration have been delegated to local school boards.
- In addition to local school boards and state governments, many other groups exercise some measure of influence on educational decisions, either through legal authority or through less formal means. These other groups include professional education organizations, parents, teachers, the business community, the designers of standardized tests, the federal government, and the courts.
- Court rulings in some states have shifted the responsibility for public school financing from dependence on local property taxes to greater reliance on state support.

How would you explain the fact that

- A very popular high school teacher was not given tenure?
- The average job expectancy of superintendents in large urban school districts is less than three years?
- The sex education program being planned in your hometown was never implemented?
- A textbook with a fresh approach to the curriculum was removed from circulation after a year, even though the teachers favored its use?
- A coalition of superintendents from poor school districts in your state sued the state government for increased financial support?
- Legislators in New York State banned schools from subscribing to Channel One, a free television news service for school-age children?
- Members of Citizens for Excellence in Education, a conservative Christian organization, have actively opposed states' efforts to design an "outcomes-based" curriculum?

It is quite likely that at least one of these questions applies to your local school district or state. They all reflect the struggle for governance, control, and influence over the public schools. This chapter explores how the American educational system is organized, governed, and financed. Although there are legal authorities for the schools and organizations established to exercise this authority, the educational system is strongly influenced by interest groups that do not appear on any organizational chart. We first examine the legal governing authority that exists in most states and then discuss special-interest groups that influence educational policy. Then we look at how the American educational system is financed and how disparities between rich and poor school districts are generating strong challenges to current financing policies.

Who Legally Governs Public Education?

In most countries, the public schools are a branch of the central government, federally financed and administered and highly uniform in curricula and procedures. In the United States, however, responsibility for the public schools has evolved as a state function as a result of the Tenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. Each of the fifty states has legal responsibility for the operation and administration of public schools within its own boundaries. In most aspects of public education (we will discuss certain exceptions later), the authority of federal, county, and city education agencies is subject to the will of the state authorities.

education as a state function

state vs. local control

Although legal responsibility for school governance belongs to the states, policy decisions and administration have usually been delegated to local school boards, which exist because Americans have come to insist on control of schools at the local level (see Figure 9.1). Recently, however, states have been reasserting their policymaking prerogatives.

State Offices and Administrators

At the state level, educational services can be influenced by a variety of actors, from the governor through the many employees of the state's department of education.

The Governor and the State Legislature Policy analysts agree that the state legislatures are the most influential actors in establishing educational policy because they make the laws that govern and affect education within their states. In recent years, because of the high profile of educational issues, legislatures' interest in educational policy has increased, particularly in the areas of school finance and minimum competency testing. Many governors, too, have played more prominent roles, beginning with the educational reforms of the 1980s. President Clinton and his education secretary, Richard Riley, for example, became nationally visible as governors through their educational leadership in Arkansas and South Carolina, respectively. Like legislatures, the governor's office has the power to affect educational policy, but often chooses to do so only on limited issues.

governors play leadership role

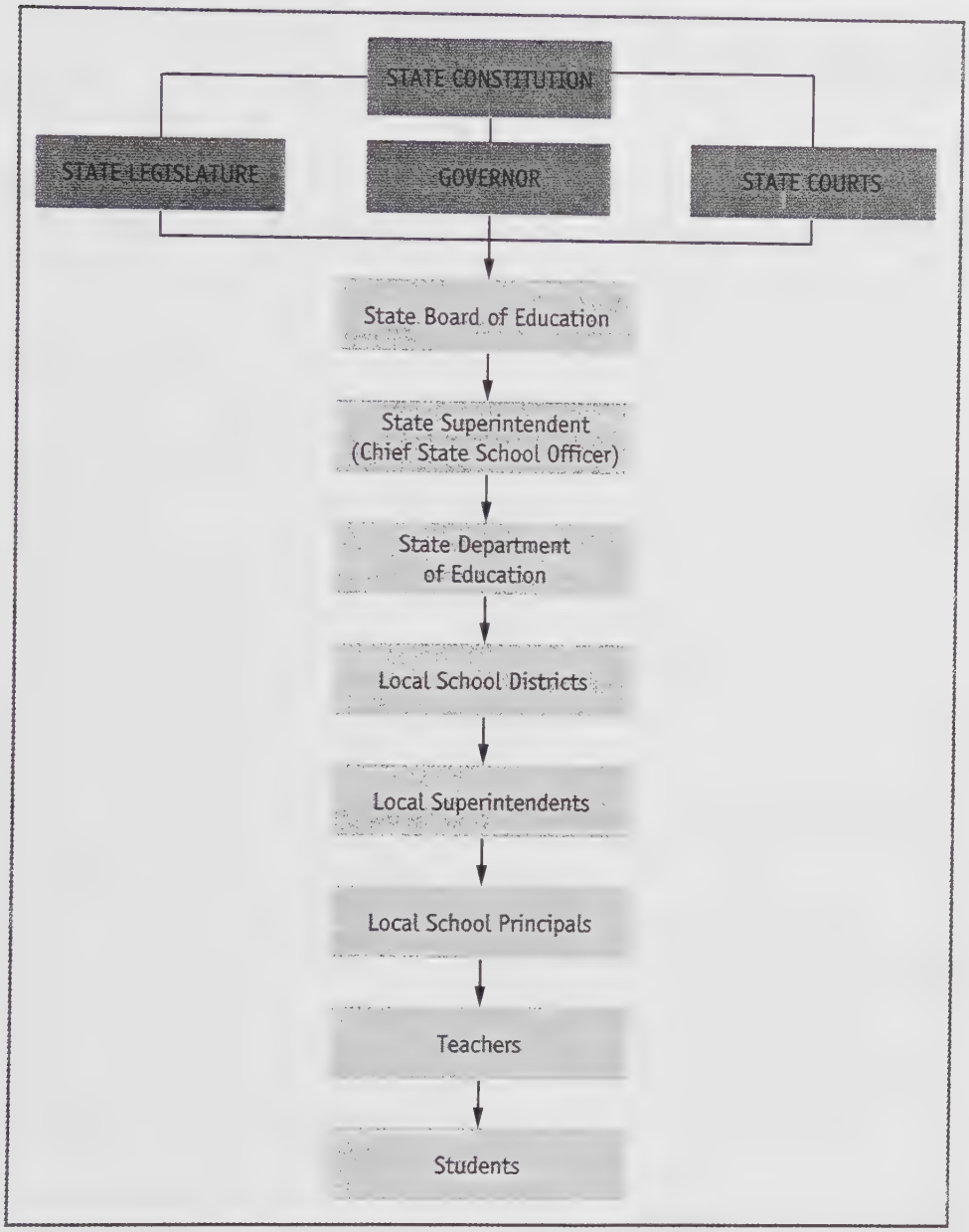
On financial issues, the roles of governor and legislature are especially obvious. Governors propose and legislatures act on budgets that contain funding for school districts. Governors and legislatures can increase or decrease the amount of money that goes into supporting public education, including any new initiatives. This is, as one wag has stated, the "Golden Rule": "Whoever has the gold makes the rules." When state economies are strong, more tax revenues are available to invest in public education, as occurred during the mid- and late 1990s. However, when recessions occur, state governments, facing a loss of tax revenues, cut back on their educational commitments and initiatives, forcing school districts to cut budgets. In either scenario, governors and state legislatures have tremendous influence over educational policy and expenditures.

the "Golden Rule"

The State Board of Education The state's legal responsibility for public education requires it to establish an organizational framework within which the local school districts can function. The result is the establishment of a **state board of education** to exercise general control and supervision of schools within the state. The state board of education is the state's policymaking body. It typically sets goals and priorities for education in the state; formulates education policy and curricular offerings, including establishing academic standards and their assessment; establishes and enforces rules and regulations for the operation of educational programs; represents the public in matters regarding the governance of education; reports to the public on accomplishments and needs; and makes recommendations to the governor and/or state legislature for the improvement

policymaking function

FIGURE 9.1 Organizational Structure of a Typical State School System



of education. The state board of education also establishes and enforces minimum standards for the operation of all phases of elementary and secondary education from the state to the local school system level.

Despite these responsibilities, state boards of education are relatively weak policy actors. They usually cannot hire or remove the chief state school officer, are often poorly staffed, and frequently lack political lines to the legislature and governor.

relatively weak



Who Should Be Accountable for Getting Results?

What's the Policy?

As a condition for spending more money on elementary and secondary education, legislatures and state boards of education are increasingly demanding that educators be accountable for achieving results. No longer content to measure quality schooling by its inputs (school facilities, dollars spent, teacher-pupil ratios, number of books in school libraries, and educators' salaries, for example), policymakers in a number of states are insisting that educators get results, and results are narrowly construed as increased student achievement test scores. In many areas, school report cards are publicized to inform communities about how well their schools are performing in terms of test scores.

How Does It Affect Teachers?

Some states are implementing steps to reward educators whose schools produce more student learning than expected and punish those whose schools fail to meet the accepted standard. For example, in Virginia, by year 2006, 70 percent of the students in each school must successfully pass the statewide assessments of student learning for the school to maintain its accreditation. In other states, educators are being given pay bonuses if the students in their schools exceed expectations.

What Are the Pros?

Advocates of accountability argue that input measures are at best indirect and that the true test of a school's effectiveness is how well its students learn the knowledge and skills it is attempting to teach. They contend that only by looking at the results of students' schooling, as measured by student test scores, can we ascertain the worth of schools.

What Are the Cons?

Many educators are concerned about using test scores for accountability purposes. Most assessments encompass learning standards across two or more grades. Should individual teachers be accountable for what their students were supposed to learn from teachers in previous grades? Should the quality of a school be judged on the basis of a single criterion: test scores? Should all schools be judged on the basis of the same test even if they differ dramatically in terms of the resources available and the challenges faced by the children they serve? Schools serving poorer communities face many more challenges in educating their students than do schools located in wealthier areas. Scores on these standardized tests may reflect the socioeconomic status of the communities served more than they indicate the quality of the schools.

What Do You Think?

1. Do you think states should publicly issue school report cards that reflect how well students in a given school performed on statewide assessments of learning standards? What are the advantages and disadvantages of doing so?
2. Can each educator's contribution to a child's learning be determined and distinguished from that of other educators? If so, how?
3. How should other important learning outcomes for which schools are responsible, such as good citizenship, be taken into account in determining a school's effectiveness? Or should they?

selection of members

The procedure for selecting state board members varies from state to state. In most states members are appointed by the governor, but in about one-third of the states members are elected by the people or the people's representatives. The number of members on a state board of education varies from state to state, but a board of nine to fifteen members is typical.

The Chief State School Officer The executive officer of the state board of education, the **chief state school officer,** usually is responsible to the state board of education for the administration of public education. (The actual titles for this position, which vary from state to state, include *superintendent of education, commissioner of education, secretary of the state board of education,* and others.) The responsibilities normally involve teacher and administrator licensure, organization of the program of studies, curriculum revision, application of the state finance law, approval of school sites and buildings, collection of statistical data, and direct supervision of elementary and secondary educational programs. This officer exercises little direct administrative authority over local educational officials, but his or her indirect influence is widely felt at the local level. In some states the officer is elected by the voters, in other states appointed by the governor, and in still other states appointed by the state board of education.

duties of chief state school officer

The State Department of Education The **state department of education** (sometimes called the *state department of public instruction*) usually operates under the direction of the state board of education and is administered by the chief state school officer. The state department of education is responsible for carrying out the policies of the state board of education and the laws passed by the state legislature. It consists of a large bureaucracy of officials, often numbering in the hundreds.

influence of state departments

Originally organized to provide statistical reports, state departments of education have grown in size, power, and influence. Their primary responsibilities usually include administering and distributing state and federal funds, licensing teachers and other educational personnel, providing schools with technical assistance in improving curriculum and teaching, providing educational data and analyses, providing administration for special programs, and accrediting college and university educational licensure programs. Most schools, school districts, and colleges of education are strongly affected by the policies and actions of these state departments. School and college personnel, including public school teachers, serve on advisory committees and task forces to assist the chief state school officer and the state department of education in their decision-making processes.

The Local School District

To facilitate local control of education, the state creates local school districts for the purpose of carrying out education in conformity with state policy. The school district is thus a unit of the state government and is usually distinct from the local municipal government.

The School Board The policymaking body of the school district is the **local school board,** which represents the citizens of the district in setting up a school program, hiring school personnel to operate the schools, determining organizational and administrative policy, and evaluating the results of the program and the performance of personnel. Although school board members are usually elected by the citizens of the local district, they are officially state officers (not simply local representatives), and they must follow the guidelines and policies established by the legislature, the state board of education, and the state department of education. The tension between states' efforts to regulate educational policy and local districts' desire to determine their own policies has increased as states have taken the initiative in the recent educational reform movement.

board members are state officers

selection of members

Methods of selecting school board members are usually prescribed by state law. Over 90 percent of the school boards are elected by popular vote, and the remainder are appointed. When board members are appointed, the responsibility for making appointments falls most often to the mayor or city council.

school boards lack diversity

What does the composite profile of school board members look like? As Table 9.1 indicates, the majority of today's school board members are male, white, and between ages forty-one and sixty—demographic characteristics that have changed little in recent years.[1] However, the proportion of women serving on boards has increased from 12 to around 40 percent since 1972. Representation of minorities continues to be small. At least 82 percent of members have annual family incomes over $40,000. Two-thirds of them have at least bachelor's degrees. Most are professionals, managers, or business owners, have children in public school, and consider themselves to be conservative. These figures indicate that in many ways, school board members are not typical of the public they serve. Whether or how this atypicality influences their values and decisions is not known. Can you think of any ways in which it might?

Just as war is too important to be left to the generals, education is too important to be left to the educators.

—PAUL WOODRING

The Superintendent of Schools

The **superintendent of schools,** a professional educator selected by the local school board to act as its executive officer and as the educational leader and administrator of the school district, is undeniably the most powerful officer in the local school organization. A superintendent's duties are many. The superintendent must recruit, select, place, and promote personnel. In addition, the superintendent has responsibility for providing and maintaining funds and facilities. Often, too, the superintendent plans the budget and supervises the maintenance, construction, and renovation of buildings. Decisions about how to improve educational opportunities, including all aspects of curriculum and instruction, may originate with the superintendent. And the superintendent generally has responsibility for maintaining harmonious relations with the community by communicating the mission of the schools to the public and marshaling support for district programs.

duties of superintendent

Theoretically, the superintendent's role is administrative and executive—he or she (only 11 or 12 percent of the nation's superintendents are female) keeps the

TABLE 9.1 Profile of School Board Members

Characteristic	Percentage
Gender:	
Male	54.1
Female	39.1
No response	6.8
Ethnic background:	
Black	6.5
White	81.3
Hispanic	3.1
Asian	0.3
Other/no response	7.8
Age:	
Under 25	0.7
26–35	3.7
36–40	6.1
41–50	46.6
51–60	24.2
Over 60	14.6
No response	4.1
Family income:	
Under $40,000	10.9
$40,000–$59,999	15.3
$60,000–$79,999	21.0
$80,000–$99,999	17.3
More than $100,000	28.0
No response	7.5

Note: Because of rounding, some totals may not add up to 100 percent.

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schools functioning—whereas the local school board of education retains policymaking responsibilities. In practice, however, the superintendent has become the major policymaker in the school district.

Superintendents Versus Local School Boards The way a school board and superintendent operate together to control a school district may depend on their relationship. According to independent observers, this relationship often is one of conflict.

conflict

One observer, Larry Cuban, asserts that "conflict is—and always has been—the essence of the superintendency."[2] Cuban describes the conflict between the superintendent and the school board, or between the superintendent and local private groups, as one of seeming competitors seeking to achieve their goals at the expense of the other participants. Such conflict is inevitable, he writes, when individuals have incompatible goals, resources are scarce, and misperceptions occur among those influencing policy decisions. Although school boards hire and fire them, superintendents are expected to lead the board. If they fail to do so, board members are likely to act independently, often with disastrous consequences.

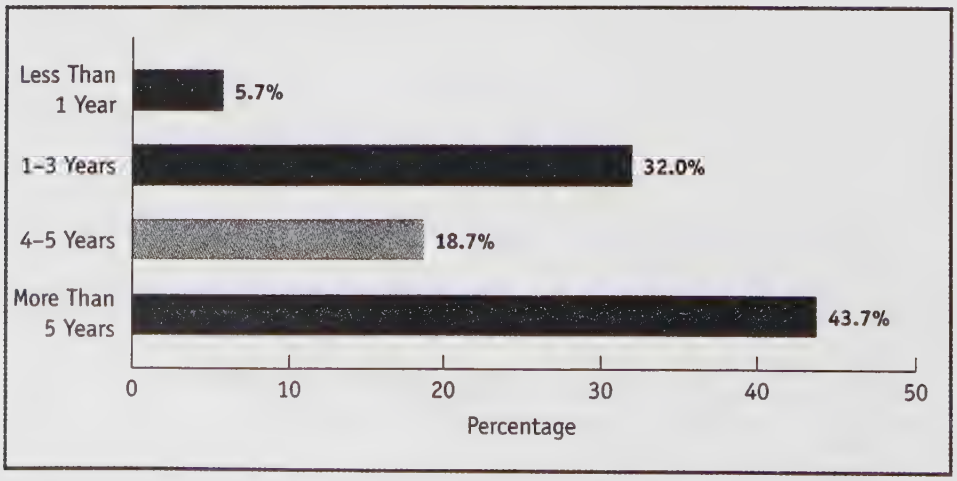
But one thing about today's superintendent is almost a given . . . he must indeed be a political animal.

—ARTHUR BLUMBERG

One measure of conflict between superintendents and school boards is the turnover rate: how often superintendents change their jobs. Currently 56 percent of all superintendents have had their jobs for five or fewer years[3] (see Figure 9.2). The average tenure for superintendents in urban districts is only 2.75 years, compared to a national average of 5.6 years among all superintendents.[4] Cuban maintains that the issues over which boards and administrators disagree may change as a result of shifting political concerns, changes in school funding or demography, or constantly changing coalitions of teachers or local constituencies. But the relationship remains one of conflict regardless of particular issues.

high turnover rate

FIGURE 9.2 Superintendents' Years of Experience in Current Job



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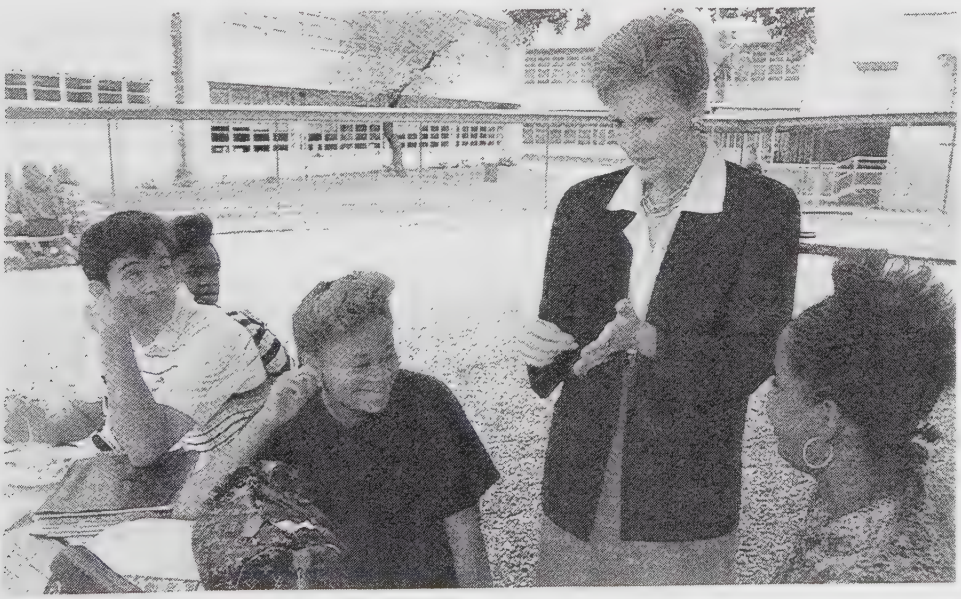
School boards and superintendents search constantly for local constituencies to provide the funding and support for school programs. And with every school board election, new points of view may be brought to the governance of the district. Superintendents must weather these changes in points of view and the emerging coalitions resulting from board member turnover. Sympathies with the schools' mission may be in a constant state of flux, requiring superintendents to exercise coalition-building skills. Their survival as nonelected public officials rests on their ability to mobilize support and manage conflict.

The School Principal For the schools within a school district, the superintendent and the local school board of education select professional educators to serve as principals. High schools and middle schools may have a staff of administrators to assist the principal, including assistant or vice principals with specific responsibilities for discipline or curriculum and instruction. At the elementary level, on the other hand, principals may be responsible for more than one school building or may serve part-time as teachers. Whatever the pattern of administrative assignments, those who act as principals are generally considered to be a part of the administrative organization, directly accountable to the superintendent and the local school board of education. (See Table 9.2 for a profile of school administrators.)

responsibilities of principal

As administrators, principals usually interview prospective faculty members and make faculty assignments, supervise and evaluate staff members, schedule students and classes, manage school budgets, administer district discipline policies, and procure and dispense supplies. The tasks are many; to list them all would be impossible. Historically, the role of the principal has included management, supervision, and inspection duties.

Effective principals promote a productive working and learning environment. They do so by understanding the mission of the school, communicating it to the



A principal's leadership style and values set the tone for the way a school functions. (© Bob Daemmrich/The Image Works)

TABLE 9.2 Profile of School Administrators (in Percentages)

	Superintendents	High School Principals	Junior High & Middle School Principals	Elementary School Principals
Sex:				
Male	89.0%	90.1%	75.2%	57.0%
Female	11.0	9.9	24.8	43.0
Ethnic background:				
White	96.3	91.4	88.0	83.8
African American	1.7	4.6	6.0	10.2
Hispanic American	1.0	1.3	4.0	4.2
Asian American	—	1.3	1.0	0.6
Native American	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.6
Other	0.3	0.7	—	0.6
Highest degree earned:				
Bachelor's	—	0.7	1.0	0.6
Master's	31.3	72.2	60.0	66.7
Specialist	28.3	15.9	28.0	22.0
Doctorate	40.0	11.3	11.0	10.7
Salary (12 month)	$106,122	$76,768	$71,499	$67,348

Note: Because of rounding, some totals may not add up to 100 percent.

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staff and students, and rewarding excellent performance. They also represent the school to parents and the community. Involving parents and community members in the school's activities and securing their support for these activities is an important function of the principal.

In schools led by effective principals, teachers and students say that the school pulls together, values learning, and is a supportive place. Effective principals establish a feeling of community and work to accomplish the goals they establish, constantly gathering information about the progress toward the goals and helping teachers and students in their efforts.[5] Thus, the principal can play a key role in establishing relationships among faculty and students and in setting standards for the accomplishment of student and teacher objectives.

Researchers are predicting a shortage of principals during the first decade of the new millennium. The shortage exists in all types of schools—rural, urban, and suburban—and at all levels, elementary through high school. Why the anticipated shortage? The number one reason is that teachers who might want to become principals believe that principals don't get paid enough for the responsibilities they must shoulder. Other reasons include the belief that the job is too stressful and time consuming and the perceived difficulty in satisfying the demands of parents and the community.[6]

shortage of principals predicted

Who Influences American Public Education?

It is not our intention in this chapter to examine in detail the authority and power that enable various groups to influence certain aspects of public education. However, a brief look at the interplay of influence exercised by professional education organizations, parents, business, standardized testing, the courts, and the federal government yields some fascinating insights into how decisions about public education are actually made.

Professional Education Organizations

Among the most influential forces on the schools are professional education organizations, in particular the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT).

teacher organizations are powerful

In recent years, the role of teachers' organizations in determining educational policy has greatly increased. At the national level, the NEA and the AFT exert considerable influence on educational policy and legislation. Moreover, the state affiliates of the NEA and AFT are among the most effective lobbying groups in their respective states. (See Chapter 15 for more on these two teacher organizations.) The NEA and AFT affiliates have well-articulated positions on selected issues, represent thousands of teachers who can be mobilized to vote for or against particular legislators, and spend considerable amounts of money to make their positions known. State politicians pay considerable attention to these teachers' organizations because of their power and influence. At the local level—largely as a result of collective bargaining techniques, including work stoppages or the threat of them—teachers' organizations have won more and more power over educational policy.

Today many local teachers' organizations, including NEA and AFT affiliates, have won recognition as the official bargaining representatives of their members. Teachers' organizations are also demanding that issues previously considered the prerogatives of local school boards and superintendents be subject to collective bargaining. Among these issues are teacher and paraprofessional salaries, clerical and secretarial assistance, curriculum development, fringe benefits, in-service training, class size, textbook selection, and even the appointment of department heads and other school administrators.



Teachers exercise decision-making power in various ways, such as selecting books to be used in literature classes. (© Elizabeth Crews)

site-based decision making

Teachers' efforts to negotiate their teaching role and its conditions have not always been welcomed by local school boards and superintendents. However, one recent reform effort to improve schools, **site-based decision making,** has tended to increase teachers' power. The idea behind site-based decision making is that most changes need to occur at the school level, and therefore many administrative and budget decisions should be made at that level, with teachers becoming involved in the decisions that affect them and their students. Site-based decision making transfers much of the budget and decision making from the central school district administration to the individual school level. As a result of such reform efforts, teachers are gaining more authority over important school decisions.

Parents

Ask educators who has the most influence in determining whether children succeed in school, and they will almost always answer "parents." Parents are their children's first and primary teachers, and the only ones who follow a child's progress from year to year. As the two major forces for educating and socializing children in society, parents and teachers should be natural allies. Too often, however, a wide chasm separates them. Some teachers fear that parents will interfere

in their classrooms; others feel pressed for time and don't want to spend the extra effort to communicate with and effectively involve parents. Some parents seem too consumed with the problems of work and raising a family to become involved in schools, whereas others actively participate in various school functions. Research is clear that without effective parental involvement in the schools, most students will not succeed academically. In a national survey of school superintendents, 68 percent identified a lack of parental involvement as the biggest roadblock to student achievement.[7]

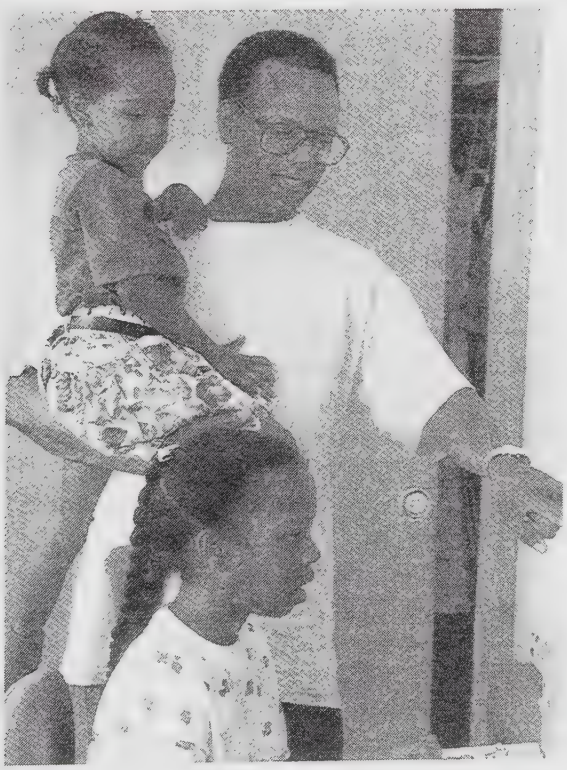
A parent is the most important teacher a child ever has.

—JOAN BECK

parental influence

The local **parent-teacher organization (PTO)** serves as a communications link between parents and the formal school organization, with teachers usually acting as representatives of the schools. Formally, the school system ordinarily operates by means of down-the-line communications, from the superintendent to the principal, to the teacher, and then to the parents. Typically, school systems are less receptive to up-the-line communications from parents or teachers to administrators. But when the formal hierarchy does not respond to up-the-line communications in a satisfactory manner, parents can resort to an informal communications system in an attempt to get a better response.

An instance of informal communications occurred when the energetic principal of a New Haven, Connecticut, school in a low-income neighborhood galvanized the PTO in an attempt to improve the school's facilities. He began by going



Family support and emphasis on the value of education are extremely important influences on a child's success in school. (© Joan Clifford/The Picture Cube)

to an important neighborhood leader and persuading her that the children in the school needed help. Convinced, the woman helped the principal go to work on the PTO. To stimulate parent involvement, they convinced the PTO to endorse a hot-lunch program; this required the PTO to raise funds and hire kitchen help. As the PTO became more active, the principal began a campaign for a new school to replace the old one. When the city administration raised obstacles, the principal called together the PTO members and other neighborhood leaders to ask their support for the construction of a new school. Within twenty-four hours, they were exerting pressure on the city school board and the administration. Needless to say, the school was built.

ways to improve parental involvement

Most PTOs, however, are comparatively impotent in achieving educational aims. Educational reformers are concerned about the ineffectiveness of parent groups, because they know that reforms will last only if parents are actively involved in the work of their schools. Many strategies can be used to increase parental involvement and improve the partnership between parents and teachers. These strategies include frequent parent-teacher conferences; homework hotlines on which parents can telephone the school to find out about homework assignments or communicate with teachers; workshops for parents that address a variety of topics; school volunteer programs; and school councils on which parents, teachers, and administrators discuss school policies and practices. Teachers and school administrators must be trained to overcome barriers to effective parental involvement and to create school environments where parents of all races, ethnicities, and social classes feel welcome.

Business

historical influence of business

Business influence on education is not a new phenomenon. Whether it was to educate immigrants, gear up for the Industrial Revolution, or catch up with the Soviets after the launch of *Sputnik* in 1957, American business has long sought to shape public schools to meet its needs.

In the early twentieth century, business influenced the way educators thought about schooling by applying many principles of efficiency and standardization to school operations. Schools were compared to factories whose products were students; newly developed tests measured the quality of the school's products; in the name of efficiency, class sizes and teacher loads were increased. In short, the public demanded a profitable return on the money "invested" in schools. Many educators continue to speak of the schools, a child-oriented social institution, in these business terms. The language itself indicates the appeal of standardizing and controlling the schools' outcomes in a business fashion.

But the relationship between business and education is changing, going beyond school imitation of business practices. Deep concern about the quality of U.S. public education and its ability to produce workers with the knowledge and skills business needs has prompted partnerships between educators and business executives. In particular, during the 1980s and 1990s, the business community was at the forefront of efforts to restructure public education. Business leaders have been substantially involved in almost every educational reform report. As a

business plays leading role in reform

result, they have become both the strongest critics and the staunchest advocates for public education. The chief executive officers of such major corporations as Procter & Gamble, Xerox, Apple Computer, Eastman Kodak, Coca-Cola, IBM, RJR Nabisco, Exxon, and many others have demanded and pushed for educational reforms in state capitals, the halls of Congress, and the White House. More than 100,000 business-school partnerships have been formed since 1983, and business has donated hundreds of millions of dollars to improve elementary and secondary schools.[8] One major effort on the part of business to influence school reform is the Business Coalition for Educational Reform (BCER), a group of 13 national business organizations and over 400 local and state coalitions seeking to strengthen America's schools by increasing "academic achievement for all students by supporting and expanding business involvement in education at the national, state, and local levels." The BCER supports efforts to raise academic standards for all students and to ensure that standards reflect the knowledge and skill needed for workplace success.[9] Further information on school restructuring efforts appears in Chapter 13.

Why should the business community show such interest? The initiatives to improve the quality of American education go beyond altruistic impulses. One source estimates that the education market represents potential revenue of $600 billion for corporate interests. With that kind of money involved, businesses will make their presence known.[10] In addition, like the nation's governors, many business leaders are convinced that education reform is essential to the health of the American economy. Competition from Asian and European manufacturers in world markets, a massive U.S. trade deficit, and industry's perception that entry-level workers lack proper job skills have focused attention on educating the American work force. In fact, U.S. companies spend more than $50 billion annually on remedial education for their workers.[11]

education/economy link

Not everyone sees business involvement in education as totally positive. Some express concern that financial support from business will lead to business intrusion—that schools may be unduly shaped to meet business needs. Another concern centers on business's provision of free curriculum and instructional materials for teachers. Critics argue that corporate handouts are not just supplementary gifts but sophisticated marketing tools containing subtle and not-so-subtle messages to support the corporation's biases and promote brand identification and product loyalty. Some people cynically view business's push for the expanded use of technology in schools as an attempt to create a new market for computers and other educational technology.

business intrusion?

Among the most controversial business ventures is Channel One, a commercial service that delivers ten minutes of high-quality news programming directly to public school classrooms free of cost in exchange for two minutes of advertising. A school that subscribes to the twelve-minute newscast receives a satellite dish, two videocassette recorders, a television set for every classroom in the building, and schoolwide cabling to hook it all together. By 1999 about 12,000 middle schools and high schools had signed on, reaching an estimated 8 million students, about 40 percent of the nation's twelve- to eighteen-year-olds.[12] Many educators have attacked the concept as gross commercialism and a dangerous

Channel One controversy

Reading, Writing, . . . and Purchasing?

Students are a captive audience in public schools, and they have enormous purchasing power. Elementary-age children have about $15 billion per year to spend, and they influence another $160 billion of spending by their parents. Teenagers spend about $57 billion of their own money yearly. Commercial businesses pitch their wares to these children and youth in schools through a variety of marketing techniques. Here are a few examples from the Center for Commercial-Free Public Education:

- An Exxon curriculum teaches young children how the *Valdez* oil spill was an example of environmental protection.
- In Colorado Springs, Colorado, 7-Up and Burger King advertise on the sides of school buses.
- Clairol distributes free bags of shampoo to students as they leave school, along with surveys asking whether they had "a good or bad hair day."
- A Nike program asks young people to devote a week of classroom time to learning the life cycle of a Nike shoe. The curriculum fails to address the sweatshop portion of the manufacturing process.
- A Texas school roof features a Dr. Pepper logo that is visible from planes flying overhead.
- Dow Chemical's *Chem-TV* and *Chemapalooza* videos feature teenagers dancing and singing about the wonderful world of chemicals.

What other examples of commercialism can you think of that might affect students in public schools? Are you concerned about this trend? Why or why not?

Sources: Henry A. Giroux, "Education Incorporated?" *Educational Leadership* 56, no. 2 (October 1998), p. 16; "A Word from Our Sponsor," *Virginia Journal of Education* (November 1998), p. 13.

precedent, whereas supporters argue that the program rouses students' interest in current events. In addition, supporters argue, the equipment provided by Channel One enables schools to take advantage of other cable offerings, such as the Discovery Channel, Cable News Network, C-Span, and the Learning Channel. One state superintendent, an opponent of Channel One, states, "The problem is, they want us to sell access to our kids' minds, and we have no right, morally or ethically, to do that."[13] Are the advantages worth the cost? What do you think?

The classroom is . . . a place in which the claims of various political, social, and economic interests are negotiated. The classroom is both a symbol and a product of deadly serious cultural bargaining.

—NEIL POSTMAN

Another way business influences education is through the recent movement toward private management of public schools that has occurred in some urban areas. In a small number of cases, private corporations such as the Edison Schools, TesseracT Group (formerly known as Educational Alternatives, Inc.), and Sylvan Learning, Inc., have contracted with school districts to provide specific educational services, to operate schools whose students have been performing poorly on academic tests, or to begin new schools with promising designs. Advocates of this **privatization** movement argue that private corporations can operate these schools more effectively and less expensively. Opponents, especially teachers' unions, claim that schools operated under a profit motive may shortchange students' welfare in order to make money. They do this, the critics claim, by hiring inexperienced teachers, using unlicensed

privatization

staff, and eliminating high-cost special education programs. To date, private management of public schools has often led to cleaner buildings, greater access to computers, and more individualized instruction, but has yet to show academic improvement.[14]

There is no question that the role of the business community in educational affairs has greatly expanded since the mid-1980s, and most people see this trend as positive. Businesses and corporations, with a vested stake in the outcomes of public education, will undoubtedly continue to be major players in the reform of our educational system. The challenge for educators will be to walk the line between partnerships and cooperation on the one hand and exploitation for commercial purposes on the other.

cooperation or exploitation?

Standardized Testing

As programs for school improvement proliferated in the 1980s, the trend to assess the quality of schools and teachers by using standardized tests also grew in influence. Many states now require high school students to perform well on tests of general academic competence as a prerequisite for graduation, and almost all states require local public school districts to test students at some point(s) between grades one and twelve. Forty-four states require aspiring teachers to pass a state-prescribed, standardized test before entering a teacher education program and/or before being licensed to teach.[15]

increase of standardized testing

Many educators express grave concerns about what they think is an overemphasis on testing. Measuring school excellence by standardized tests poses a danger arising from the limited and simplistic nature of the tests. Evaluation experts warn that tests external to the schools can be limiting if schools pattern their curricula to conform to the content of the tests. Schools may fail to teach what is difficult to test. In some instances, the content and actual form of a test have become the curriculum itself as weeks of classroom drill have centered on previous versions of tests.

overemphasis on testing?

Others worry that standardized tests overemphasize technical information and underemphasize educators' professional judgments about the worthiness of a school's programs. With a national call to stress more problem solving, critical thinking, and writing skills, educators see a contradiction in using standardized tests that don't measure these outcomes. They are calling for more *authentic assessment,* that is, using such things as actual specimens or examples of students' work to determine educational achievement.

authentic assessment

Currently there is a strong movement in the United States for each state to create standards for student achievement linked to some form of assessment. More and more, policymakers believe that student achievement will not increase markedly until high standards are set and quality work by all students is expected and rewarded. Current standardized tests are seen as reflecting only minimum standards and as being insufficient to measure high learning outcomes. As individual states develop assessment tests that measure what students are expected to learn, the reliance on national standardized tests that are not coordinated with local and state curricula is likely to diminish.

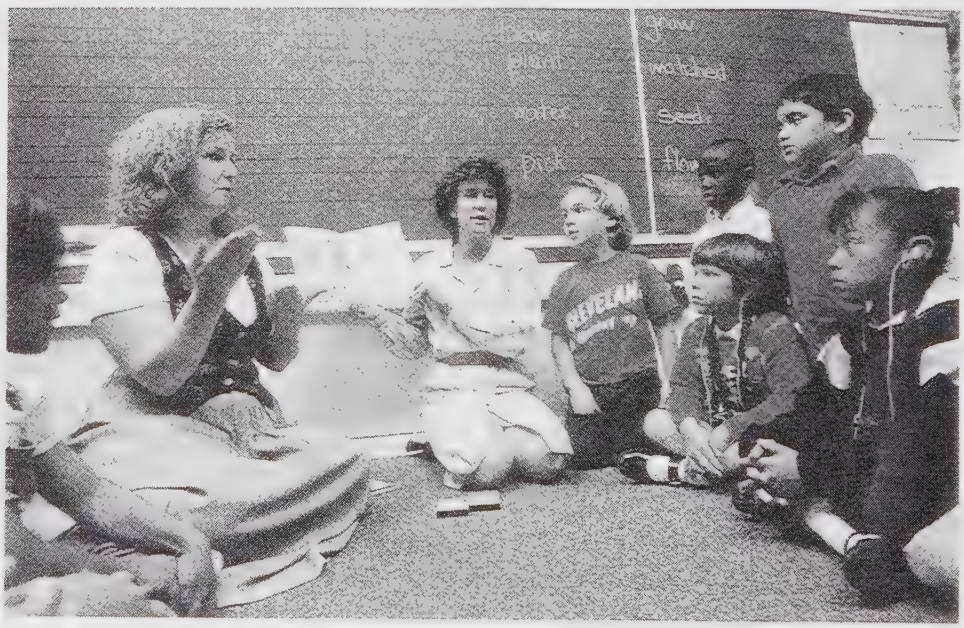
standards movement

The Federal Government

strong court influence

The Federal Courts One could argue that the most powerful educational policymaking group in the United States is the judicial branch. Many groups, frustrated by local and state school policies, have turned to state and federal courts for relief. The history of education has been shaped by important court decisions on the duties and responsibilities of school officials in such areas as school desegregation, religion in the schools, student rights, and, particularly at the state level, school finance. The U.S. Supreme Court has played a particularly important role in changing educational policy in this country. Because its rulings have altered or reduced the power of state and local educational authorities, some of the Court's decisions have generated deep resentment among those who abhor this "federal intrusion" into states' rights. Other people applaud the Court's decisions as steps to make American education more responsive to broad democratic principles. The Supreme Court has issued rulings affecting such important educational policies as desegregation, public aid to private schools, rights of people with disabilities, gender equity, and sexual harassment. Currently it is poised to review the constitutionality of the controversial Milwaukee voucher plan. (See Chapter 5 for a discussion of vouchers and public funding for private and religious schools.)

However, the courts alone, as powerful as they are, cannot do everything. Often federal administrative action needs to be joined with more detailed judicial rulings and pressures. In the famous 1954 case of *Brown* v. *Board of Education of Topeka,* the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the doctrine of "separate but equal" had no place in public education. But how was this momentous judgment to be implemented? The Court decided only that "all deliberate speed" should be employed to abolish the dual school system for African Americans and whites, but no judicial guidelines were developed to steer the process. As a result, for a decade



Federal legislation and federal court decisions have significantly affected education, including the education of children with such disabilities as deafness. (© Will Hart/PhotoEdit)

almost no changes occurred until the 1960s, when a combination of new congressional laws on civil rights and education and strong enforcement of desegregation by President Lyndon Johnson's administration took place.

enforcement necessary

Recent Supreme Court decisions have reversed previous desegregation mandates, effectively diminishing the Court's role in mandating local desegregation efforts. See Chapter 11 for more on desegregation efforts and Chapter 12 for a more detailed discussion of the impact of Supreme Court decisions on American education.

reducing desegregation mandates

The U.S. Department of Education The Department of Education is a significant part of the federal government, with cabinet-level status and a budget of about $40 billion in fiscal year 2000. The department administers a variety of programs passed by Congress, including programs concerned with elementary and secondary education, postsecondary education, educational research and development, vocational and adult education, special education, and civil rights. It also administers funds devoted to the collection of educational statistics.

Although education is not specifically mentioned in the federal constitution, there has always been some degree of federal involvement in education. The level of involvement often fluctuates depending on whether Republicans or Democrats control the White House and Congress and on the particular ideology professed by the party in power. Republicans generally have sought to decrease the involvement of the federal government in education, even advocating abolition of the U.S. Department of Education, whereas Democrats tend to be more supportive of both the department and federal efforts to improve education.

fluctuating federal involvement

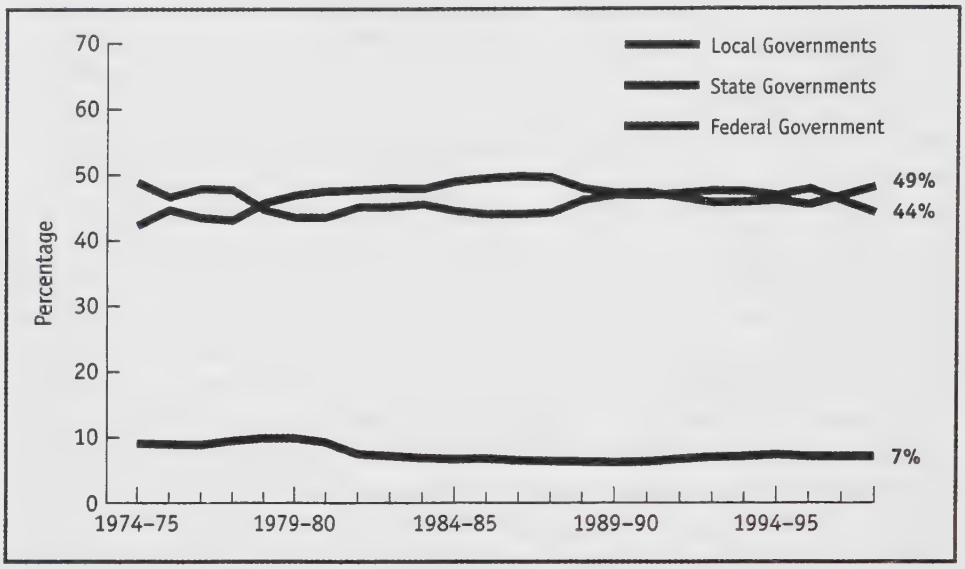
How Are Schools Financed?

The total amount of money available to a school district for education is the sum of locally raised revenues, state aid, federal aid, and miscellaneous revenues. Historically most of the money used to support public elementary and secondary schools has come from local revenue sources, primarily the property tax. But from the late 1970s to the early 1990s, for the first time in American history, the states' share of support for public education exceeded the local share (see Figure 9.3). Increased state revenues have helped to offset the decreases in local and federal funding of the schools. Currently state governments contribute about 49 percent, local governments almost 44 percent, and the federal government slightly less than 7 percent toward the financing of public schools.[16]

The percentage of revenue received from federal, state, and local sources varies considerably from state to state. Federal contributions to state revenues for public education range from a high of 13 percent for Mississippi to a low of 3 percent for New Hampshire and New Jersey. Local contributions to revenues range from a high of 91 percent for New Hampshire to a low of 2 percent for Hawaii, which has a statewide school district. Other than Hawaii, which gets 91 percent of its school funding from the state, the state receiving the highest proportion of revenues from state sources is Michigan at 82 percent, and the lowest is New Hampshire at 6 percent.[17] Let's look in more detail at state and local funding patterns.

funding percentages vary

FIGURE 9.3 Percentage of Revenues Received from Federal, State, and Local Sources for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools



Sources: Thomas D. Snyder, Charlene M. Hoffman, and Claire M. Geddes, *Digest of Education Statistics 1996* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1996), p. 151; "Education Vital Signs," *The American School Board Journal* (December 1998), p. A27.

State and Local Funding

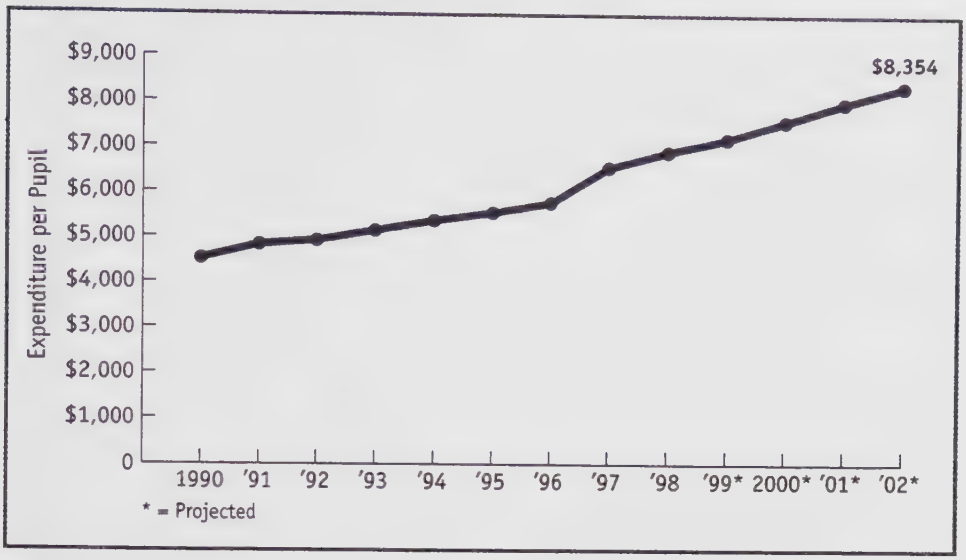
sources of revenue

How is money raised to pay for educational expenditures, and by what systems of taxation? State revenue systems are as diverse as school finance plans and reflect the socioeconomic makeup, the political climate, and the educational needs of each state. State governments use a combination of sales, personal income, corporate income, and excise taxes to generate revenues. Some states fund their schools partly with income from state-run lotteries. Local governments, in contrast, rely primarily on the property tax for income. Most states require the citizens in a school district to vote either on the property tax rate to support education or on the school budget itself.

rising expenditures per pupil

Figure 9.4 on page 311 shows the upward trend in average expenditure per pupil in daily attendance. The nationwide average stood at $6,407 per pupil for 1998–99.[18] From state to state, however, the per-pupil expenditures vary widely (see Figure 9.5 on page 312), ranging from over $10,153 per pupil each year to $3,732. The reason for these differences is primarily economic. A state's ability to pay for education depends on the income level of its residents and corporations. In general, the southern states fund education at lower levels than the northern states. As a result of lower funding, are students who live in some of the Sunbelt states being deprived of a quality education? The connection between funding and excellence of education is often disputed, but a group of researchers from the University of Chicago, after reanalyzing thirty-two studies on this issue, concluded that higher per-pupil expenditures, better teacher salaries, more educated

FIGURE 9.4 Expenditures per Pupil



Source: Data in constant 1995–96 dollars from *Projections of Education Statistics to 2008* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1998), Table 34; web site at http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/pj2008/p98t34.html.

and experienced teachers, and smaller class and school sizes—all directly a result of higher funding—are strongly related to improved student learning.[19]

School Finance Reform and the Courts

Many knowledgeable educators and politicians argue that one of the greatest causes of unequal educational opportunity is the method used to finance school systems. Because of local districts' heavy reliance on property taxes, districts where property values are high generate much more money to finance their schools than districts where property values are low. Within the same state, for example, the average amount of money spent per child in one district may be more than three times the amount spent in a nearby district. Such spending differentials result in great educational disparities, as measured by pupil-teacher ratios, training and experience of staff, and availability of facilities, equipment, and counseling services.

unequal funding

Court Rulings As a result of numerous court decisions, efforts to equalize the disparities in funding within states have shifted some of the responsibility for funding from local school districts to the state level. In 1971, a class action suit, *Serrano* v. *Priest,* was filed by pupils and their parents against California state and county officials concerned with financing public schools. The suit charged that the school-financing scheme was unconstitutional. The Supreme Court of California supported the parents' claim that the quality of a child's education must

Serrano *v.* Priest

FIGURE 9.5 Average Expenditure per Pupil, by State



Source: Reprinted with permission from *American School Board Journal,* December 1999. Copyright © 1999, National School Boards Association. All rights reserved.

not be a function of wealth other than the wealth of the state as a whole. The court also held that the California system of financing schools on the basis of local property taxes violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

In 1973, however, the Supreme Court of the United States, by a five-to-four vote, reversed a similar decision (known as the *Rodriguez* case) involving the school finance system of the state of Texas. The Court found that the U.S. Constitution was not violated because the right to an education is not guaranteed explicitly or implicitly by the Constitution. Although *federal* law had not been violated, the Court did indicate that the finding should not be interpreted as a victory for the status quo. In effect, issues of inequity in school finance were returned to the province of the state courts and legislatures.

equality as state concern

Since the *Rodriguez* case, other state courts have ruled that their school financing systems violate their state constitutions. Many state constitutions, unlike the U.S. Constitution, contain equal protection clauses that can be interpreted to include education as a protected right. Just since 1989, supreme courts in twenty-one states have issued rulings on the constitutionality of their school finance systems. In eleven states the high court has ruled the finance system unconstitutional, and in ten states the system has been upheld. In those states where the finance system has been ruled unconstitutional, the issue has centered on inadequacies in the level of educational opportunities offered to children in the poorer school districts. The courts in those states examined whether the poor children were receiving a sufficient education as required by the state constitution and as measured by contemporary education standards or by comparisons to the best or highest-spending districts. In contrast, in states where the system of school finance was upheld, the courts usually interpreted their state constitutions as guaranteeing only a basic minimum level of funding.[20] As a result of court challenges, more than twenty states have reformed their school finance laws since 1973.

Michigan reform

In an unprecedented move, in 1993 the Michigan legislature voted to eliminate local property taxes as a source of revenue for the public schools. Many observers called the action "bold," while others termed it "reckless." What made the action so controversial was the fact that the Michigan legislature at that time lacked an alternative funding system to replace the $6.3 billion in local property tax funds for schools. State leaders planned to use the self-inflicted crisis to dramatically recast the existing school finance system, which left great gaps in spending power between wealthy and poor school districts. By 1994, the voters of Michigan had voted to increase the state sales tax by 50 percent and raise taxes on cigarettes to replace the greatly reduced property tax, thus permitting the state to reallocate state resources to poorer school districts. Other states are likely to follow the Michigan example of less reliance on local property taxes.

pressures for equality

Educators, parents, and public officials are greatly concerned that the quality of a child's education not depend on whether the child lives in a school district with high property values. Many of these concerned citizens are urging that state governments become responsible for raising educational revenue and distributing the full costs of local schools to the school districts. The school districts would continue to be in charge of the operation of the local schools but would no longer carry the burden of raising needed money.

Year-Round Schools

One innovative way some school districts are trying to cut costs is to implement year-round schooling to make the best use of school facilities throughout the year. By 1998, about 1.8 million students participated in year-round programs in 2,460 U.S. schools, and the numbers are growing. The major push for year-round schools has occurred mainly in elementary schools and in fast-growing states such as California, Utah, Texas, and Florida.

Year-round schools began in 1968 in Hayward, California, where school was held in session for nine weeks, followed by a three-week break. This pattern was repeated four times a year. Other schools have developed different patterns of attendance, but all keep their facilities open all year and stagger schedules so that some students are always in attendance. That lets schools house 25 to 50 percent more students without increasing class sizes.

Advocates of year-round schooling cite several benefits:

1. Students receive continuous instruction and don't suffer from learning slippage caused by three months' vacation.
2. Students can take enrichment activities or remedial instruction during intersessions.
3. Since one-fourth of the students will be on vacation at any given time, districts can cope with overenrollments without building new schools. Thus, they save tax dollars.
4. Teachers and students avoid burnout by experiencing more frequent breaks.
5. Teachers can earn more money by serving as substitutes during their vacations or by teaching intersession offerings.

Opponents argue that year-round schooling doesn't save money but actually costs more because schools must pay for additional administrative, utility, maintenance, transportation, and salary costs. Moreover, many older schools lack air conditioning to operate in the summer. One clear disadvantage of year-round schooling is the disruption of established routines. Families may have to alter child care arrangements and vacation schedules, and teachers may have to rearrange their summer pursuits, including graduate studies and second jobs. Other disadvantages include inconvenience to families with siblings on different schedules and the possible limitation of courses available to students.

When year-round schooling is first discussed in a school district, there is often strong opposition. However, in those districts that have tried it, most of the teachers, students, and parents support the move. Even students seem to prefer the shorter and more frequent vacations to the longer, traditional summer vacation.

Would you enjoy teaching in such an arrangement? Why or why not?

Sources: "Year-Round Education," *Education Update* 37, no. 7 (September 1995), pp. 6–8; "Should Kids Go to School Year-Round?" *USA Weekend,* May 29–31, 1998, p. 12.

Federal Funding

Although the federal government may provide less money for public schools than do state or local governments, federal funds are strategically important and have a far greater impact than their proportion of school funding would suggest.

categorical aid

Funding in the Past Much of federal aid to education traditionally has been in the form of **categorical grants:** that is, the money must be spent for designated purposes (or categories) that are stated generally in the legislation and more

Where Does the United States Stand on Education Funding?

Many politicians, arguing against the need for increased spending on education, assert that the United States already spends more on public education than do most comparable countries, but gets worse results. "Money is not the answer," they claim.

We can shed some light on the debate by comparing U.S. educational spending with that of some other countries. To allow for differences in size of the economies, we can consider public spending on education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), the total value of a country's output. The United States spends 3.5 percent of its GDP on elementary and secondary education. The Scandinavian countries of Denmark and Sweden spend 4.3 and 4.5 percent, respectively, on elementary and secondary education, while France and Great Britain spend 4.0 and 3.8 percent, respectively. Surprisingly, Germany, Australia, and Japan rank below the United States, spending 2.9, 3.2, and 3.0 percent, respectively.

Such figures indicate that the United States devotes more of its resources to elementary and secondary education than do most other industrialized nations. However, the United States might be expected to spend proportionally more than other countries because of certain characteristics of our school system and society. Our decentralized school system is more expensive than the single, centrally administered system that characterizes many of the other industrialized nations. Our population is more diverse than most countries', thus presenting unique challenges. And the very high number of U.S. children living in poverty creates additional demands for schools. Also, the United States, compared to the other countries, spends a much greater percentage of its public education funds—17 percent—on special education services. Given these factors, our percentage of GDP spent on elementary and secondary education does not seem extravagant.

Sources: Digest of Educational Statistics 1998 (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1999), p. 469; Richard Rothstein with Karen Hawley Miles, *Where's the Money Gone?* (Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute, 1995), p. 8.

precisely by the federal agency administering the funds. As a result, the federal government has been able to influence school districts and institutions that have accepted or sought its aid. For example, to qualify for federal funds to improve its reading program, a school district would have to conform to the guidelines and restrictions accompanying the money. Many financially stricken school districts have been grateful for additional funds, regardless of the regulations they carry.

strong funding, 1960–80

During the period from 1960 to 1980, federal education programs thrived. The federal government's share of elementary and secondary school revenues increased from 4.4 to 9.8 percent during this period.[21] Congressional acts provided money to colleges, cities, states, and agencies to finance a wide variety of projects, including construction of buildings and other educational facilities; improvement of instruction or administration; development of educational personnel, including teachers and paraprofessionals, particularly for high-poverty areas; provision of loans for prospective teachers; and funding for educational research.

block grants

During President Reagan's administration (1981–89), categorical grant programs were largely replaced by block grants to state and local education agencies. **Block grants** are sums of money that come with only minimal federal restrictions and are transferred from the federal government to the state governments



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as a block of money rather than by categories. Moreover, the Reagan administration successfully held the line on federal expenditures for education. These changes reflected the belief of President Reagan, and of many other Republicans, that the federal government should play a reduced role in educational policymaking. In fact, the federal government's share of support for public education fell from 9.8 percent in 1980 to 6.1 percent in 1990, but by 1999 had climbed back to slightly less than 7.0 percent. (See Figure 9.3 on page 310.) Today the federal government employs both categorical and block grant programs.

Compensatory Education Although the federal government provides money for a variety of educational programs, its most significant efforts have been to address the needs of children from high-poverty areas who are at risk for educational failure. **Compensatory education** is an approach to creating more equal educational opportunities for disadvantaged children. In particular, compensatory education attempts to overcome a student's learning problems by incorporating extra education into the regular school program or, to keep such problems from developing, by providing students with appropriate preschool programs. The most famous preschool initiative is **Head Start,** a federal program that aims to improve the learning skills, social skills, and health status of poor children so that they can begin schooling on an equal basis with their more advantaged peers. For the 2000 fiscal year, the federal government budgeted over $5.3 billion for Head Start programs. Since its inception in 1965, Head Start has served almost 17 million children.[22]

Head Start



Head Start programs target children who are "at risk" of school failure by intervening in their early years to improve their skills. (© Paul Conklin)

varieties of programs

Compensatory programs come in many forms. Some programs, like Head Start, emphasize early intervention and target children who are "at risk" for later school failure. Some help parents learn how to interact more effectively with their babies and young children in the areas of cognitive and psychosocial development. Other compensatory programs target older children and focus on basic skill instruction, tutoring, or remediation in a variety of academic areas. Dropout prevention programs, job training, and adult literacy instruction are all attempts to help older individuals improve the quality of their lives through education and to help prevent the cycle of educational disadvantage from being passed down through generations.

Title I Compensatory education was formalized in Title I of the 1965 **Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)**, which authorizes the federal government's single largest investment in elementary and secondary education. **Title I** was designed to do two things: (1) deliver federal funds to local school districts and schools for the education of students from low-income families and (2) supplement the educational services provided to low-achieving students in those districts. As part of the reauthorization of the ESEA in 1994, several Title I requirements changed. To receive money, states and school districts must submit a state improvement plan that includes the adoption of challenging content standards and aligned assessments for Title I students. Schools are now allowed to use their Title I funds on a schoolwide basis rather than only for the poorest students, and they can combine money from multiple federal programs. However, school districts must now rank their schools based on their percentages of poor students and distribute Title I funds accordingly, with the poorest schools receiving the

Title I requirements

most money per pupil. Although the highest-poverty schools make up only about 15 percent of schools nationwide, they receive 46 percent of Title I funds.[23]

Between 1965 and 1999, Title I provided about $120 billion for educational services in almost all of the nation's school districts. Title I now provides more than $8 billion each year on behalf of over 11 million children in 45,000 schools and is the largest federal investment in our public schools. Of the 11 million Title I students, about two-thirds are enrolled in grades one through six. Hispanic American students make up 30 percent, African American students 28 percent, and white students 36 percent of those receiving Title I support. Title I grants serve about 260,000 preschool children, 167,000 private school children, close to 300,000 migrant children, some 200,000 students identified as homeless, and about 2 million students with limited English proficiency.[24] In spite of what seems like an enormous amount of money, only about 50 percent of all eligible children receive services from Title I funds. Because Title I has never been funded at a high enough level to meet the needs of low-income schools and because its resources are widely dispersed, even the recent funding increases have not checked the growing educational crisis in low-income areas.

insufficient funding

Evaluations and Controversies Evaluations of Title I programs and Head Start have been mixed. Studies indicating that gains have been made in some programs are often contradicted by other studies. The earliest hopes—that compensatory education would increase student IQ scores and scholastic achievement—have not realized significant results. Many individual Title I programs succeed, but the poor performance of others drags down the effectiveness of the program overall. Long-range studies that have followed students from preschool to age nineteen, like the study of students in the very successful Perry Preschool Program in Ypsilanti, Michigan, provide other indicators of program success. Effective early childhood programs may result in fewer special education placements, more high school graduations, lower teen pregnancy rates, increased employment and earnings, fewer crimes committed, and greater commitment to marriage.[25] *Early intervention*—beginning the program early in the child's life— may provide the key to success in compensatory education programs.

evaluations mixed

early intervention a key

Some observers of compensatory education programs criticize them, however, for not showing evidence of improved IQ scores and scholastic achievement for participating students—the original goals of the programs. They see little point in strengthening programs that they believe have failed in the past. Proponents of compensatory education programs argue that, considering the enormity of the problem, expenditures thus far are a mere drop in the bucket. They also argue that a simultaneous attack must be made on external factors that contribute to low achievement, such as poor housing, family instability, and low income. Some argue that instead of spending the money to hire teachers and aides to provide remedial services, programs they maintain haven't worked effectively, schools receiving Title I money should incorporate proven school improvement models, such as Success for All (see the accompanying box) or James Comer's School Development Program model (see Chapter 4).

Title I reforms called for

Success for All

One compensatory education program that is quite successful is the Success for All program developed by the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students at Johns Hopkins University. The Success for All program restructures the elementary school with one goal in mind: to ensure that all students perform at grade level in reading, writing, and mathematics by the end of third grade.

Success for All schools offer a half-day of preschool and a full day of kindergarten, both focused on providing a developmentally appropriate learning experience for children. The curriculum emphasizes the development and use of language and balances academic readiness with music, art, and movement activities. The program also implements the center's research findings on one-to-one tutoring, regrouping for reading, family support teams, frequent assessments of learning with immediate help on problems, and the use of an effective reading program. Two social workers and one parent-liaison work full-time in the schools to provide parenting education and to encourage parents to support their children's efforts.

The program also includes tutors for children in grades K–3. Each tutor is a certified, experienced teacher who works one-on-one with eleven students per day. First-graders get priority for tutoring.

Evaluation results have been outstanding, much higher than for any other intervention strategy ever tried with at-risk students. Starting with one Baltimore school, the Success for All program had spread to over 1,100 schools in 45 states by 1999, and it has produced dramatic gains in students' reading proficiency. Almost all Success for All programs are in high-poverty, Title I schools. Early programs were more expensive than regular instruction, but that situation seems to have changed. By restructuring elementary schools and reconfiguring the uses of Title I money, special education, and other funds to emphasize prevention and early intervention rather than remediation, the administrators have brought costs in Success for All schools in line with those of other schools that have access to these resources.

The major lesson learned, say Robert Slavin and his colleagues, is that disadvantaged children can routinely achieve substantially greater success in schools that are neither exceptional nor extraordinary. Rather than having to depend on the outstanding principal or charismatic teacher to ensure success, every child, regardless of background, has an excellent opportunity to succeed in school.

In spite of its success in teaching students to read, many teachers don't like the program because it tells them exactly what to do throughout their lessons. In essence, they are asked to follow a fast-paced script written by the Success for All researchers. For some teachers, this process seems contrary to their beliefs about the importance of paying attention to the learning style of each child and varying their instruction accordingly.

Sources: Robert E. Slavin, Nancy A. Madden, Lawrence J. Dolan, Barbara A. Wasik, Steven M. Ross, Lana J. Smith, and Marcella Dianda, "Success for All: A Summary of Research," *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk* 1, no. 1 (1996), pp. 41–76; Success for All brochure produced by the Success for All Program, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; Jay Mathews, "As Schools Shop for Success, Teachers Rethink Role," *The Washington Post,* June 21, 1999, pp. A1, A8.

Since evaluations of Title I are equivocal, why does Congress so strongly support it? Politicians support Title I because the money reaches almost every school district and thus provides jobs and services in every congressional district. Few members of Congress will vote against providing these benefits to their districts.

Both sides acknowledge that not all programs are equally effective. The best programs achieve desired results, whereas the less effective programs do not seem to have lasting effects on student performance.

States will remain key funders

Future Outlook What is the outlook for the future? The long period of economic prosperity during the mid- and late 1990s left the federal government with unanticipated surplus tax revenues. As a result, federal contributions to education have been increasing, including new programs designed to prepare teachers to use technology effectively. Even with the increase in federal money for education, the main action for education reform will continue to be in the states' arenas. The federal government's role in education is likely to be that of an active but minor partner.

KEY TERMS

state board of education (292)
chief state school officer (295)
state department of education (295)
local school board (296)
superintendent of schools (296)
site-based decision making (302)
parent-teacher organization (PTO) (303)
privatization (306)
categorical grants (314)
block grants (315)
compensatory education (316)
Head Start (316)
Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) (317)
Title I (317)

FOR REFLECTION

1. From what you have read about the role of the superintendent, what impressions have you formed about the power of the superintendent and the constraints on that power?
2. Did the schools you attended work in partnership with business and industry? Did your education prepare you for further education and entry into the work force? What, in your opinion, is an appropriate relationship between business and schools?
3. The National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary School Principals make this statement about successful secondary schools: "In good secondary schools, the principal and teachers develop and maintain a variety of cooperative links with the community. Family and community involvement and support complement the efforts of the school." Describe some of the cooperative links you would suggest at either the elementary or secondary level.
4. How involved should the states' governors and legislatures be in public education? What are the advantages and dangers of increased involvement by state governments (as opposed to local governments) in public education?
5. Of the methods of school financing discussed in this chapter (local property taxes, state financing through statewide taxes, and state-run lotteries), which do you believe is most equitable? Why?

6. Do you believe state governments should redistribute money from rich to poor school districts through state taxing power? Why or why not?

7. What role do you think the federal government should play in compensating for educational disadvantages as a result of poverty? Should Title I be continued?

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

Burrup, Percy E., Vern Brimley, Jr., and Rulon R. Garfield. *Financing Education in a Climate of Change.* 7th ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1998.
This comprehensive text examines how schools are financed in this country, the role of the federal government, and significant court cases affecting school finance.

Johnson, Susan Moore. *Leading to Change: The Challenge of the New Superintendency.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1996.
In this text, the author studies twelve superintendents, their models of leadership, and how contexts influence their behavior.

Karp, Stan, Robert Lowe, Barbara Miner, and Bob Peterson. *Funding for Justice: Money, Equity, and the Future of Public Education.* Milwaukee: Rethinking Schools Ltd., 1997.
This book gives the facts and opinions of leading researchers and thinkers in the area of school finance. It also features an overview of major court cases on state funding.

Kozol, Jonathan. *Savage Inequalities: Children in America's Schools.* New York: HarperPerennial, 1992.
National Book Award winner Jonathan Kozol presents his shocking account of the American educational system in this best-selling book.

U.S. Department of Education. World Wide Web site at http://www.ed.gov.
SEARCH
This home page will keep you abreast of educational initiatives of the federal government. Clicking on the National Center for Education Statistics link (under Programs and Services) will give you access to many government publications and statistics on education. For information on Head Start, use http://www2.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/hsb/.

Wirt, Frederick M., and Michael W. Kirst. *The Political Dynamics of American Education.* Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1997.
This text presents an analysis of the politics of education by two leaders in the field.

10

What Are the Philosophical Foundations of American Education?

CHAPTER PREVIEW

This chapter examines the role of philosophy, a key foundational discipline in the work of the teacher. First, we describe philosophy; then we discuss four different philosophies and analyze their applications to the classroom.

This chapter emphasizes that

- Philosophical knowledge has a fundamental role in clarifying questions of education.
- Philosophical thought has distinct characteristics. Four branches of philosophy—metaphysics, epistemology, axiology, and logic—relate rather directly to the work of the teacher.
- Four philosophies of education—perennialism, progressivism, essentialism, and existentialism—have many practical implications for the classroom teacher.
- Psychological theories influence modern education, particularly constructivism.
- Teachers need to have a philosophy to guide their practice.

A medical student who wants intensely to be a surgeon, has marvelous hands, and displays a high level of technical skill but does not know how the body functions or what constitutes health can hardly be called a doctor.

An aspirant to the ministry who loves to work with people and possesses a marvelous gift of speaking but has no opinion about humanity's relationship to God or about the purpose of religion can hardly be suited for religious ministry.

And a person who has a great desire to be with young people, wants to live the life of a teacher, and possesses great technical skill but lacks purpose and direction is hardly a teacher.

These three individuals are like wind-up toys, moving along blindly without a plan or an intellectual compass. And though this image may be somewhat dramatic, there *are* people who prepare for professions without getting to the core meaning of what those professions are all about. Such directionless behavior can cause problems in any occupation or profession, but particularly in teaching. What kind of a teacher can someone be who lacks a view of what people are and a vision of what they can become? Who cannot clearly define right and wrong in human behavior? Who doesn't recognize what is important and what is unimportant or can't distinguish clear thinking from sloppy thinking? The person who would take on the responsibility for educating the young without having seriously wrestled with these questions is, to say the least, dangerous, for he or she is going against the very grain of what it means to be a teacher. In fact, it is safe to say that such a person is not a teacher but a technician.

The educated differ from the uneducated as much as the living from the dead.

—ARISTOTLE

philosophy as foundation

This chapter introduces you to philosophy, one of the foundational subjects in education, which, along with history and psychology (and, to some degree, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, and the law), forms the intellectual underpinning on which the practice of education rests. The study of philosophy helps the teacher systematically to reflect on issues that are central to education, including such basic concepts as *learning, teaching, being educated, knowledge,* and *the good life.*

What Is Philosophy?

love of wisdom

The word *philosophy* is made up of two root words: "love" (*philo*) and "wisdom" (*sophos*). In its most basic sense, then, **philosophy** is the *love of wisdom.* Although not all people love wisdom in the same way or to the same degree, all humans are questioning beings—seekers of answers. As children, we are preoccupied with such lofty questions as "How do I get fewer veggies and more dessert?" Then we progress to such questions as "How does the teacher always know to call on me when I don't have the answers?" and "What do I need to do to get a decent grade in geometry?" Ultimately, we may move to more fundamental levels of questioning: "Who am I?" "What is the purpose of life, and what am I doing here?" "What does it mean to be a really good person?"



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Fundamental Questions of Existence

Until about one hundred years ago, most people relied on religion and philosophy for answers to such fundamental questions. Whereas religion is said to represent the revealed word of God, philosophy represents a human attempt to sort out by reason the fundamental questions of existence. Many of the great thinkers of Western civilization—Plato, Aristotle, St. Thomas Aquinas, René Descartes, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Immanuel Kant, Friedrich Nietzsche, John Locke, John Stuart Mill, William James, Alfred North Whitehead, and John Dewey—have been philosophers. Because education has always been a central human concern, philosophers have thought and written a great deal about education and the questions surrounding it.

Philosophy begins with wonder.
—SOCRATES

Only a few people in our society are professional philosophers who earn their daily bread (usually a rather meager fare) by pursuing answers to the fundamental questions of life. However, all of us who wrestle with such questions as "Who am I?" and "What am I doing with my life?" are engaged in philosophical activity. Although there is a distinction between the few professional philosophers and the great number of us who are amateurs, the questions we ask and the answers we glean usually have a major impact on the practical affairs of our lives and on how we choose to spend our life force.

impact of philosophy on our lives

Sources of Our Philosophy

The very practical decision of whether to become a teacher, or a real estate broker, or a professional bungee jumper almost always has its roots in a person's philosophy of life. In developing a philosophy, we draw on many influences: our experiences in life, our religious views, and our reading of literature, history, and current events. A major difference between professionals and amateurs, however, lies in the precision of their methods.

factors that influence our philosophies

Philosophy is an extremely pure and abstract science. Philosophers work with neither test tubes nor white rats, use neither telescopes nor microscopes, and do not fly off to remote societies to observe the natives. The method or process of philosophers is questioning and reasoning; their product is *thought.*

The Philosopher's Method and Language

concern with meanings of words

Basically, philosophers are concerned with the meanings of things and how to interpret those meanings. Therefore, they have an intense interest in the real meanings of words. Although some philosophical discussion and writing involves technical language, it generally uses "plain language," the ordinary language of people. However, philosophers try to be extremely clear and careful about their use of terms. They do not want their ultimate prey—meaning—to be lost in a thicket of fuzzy language.

Although philosophy appears to deal with simple issues in simple language, behind the philosophers' questions are raging debates about profound issues that can have far-reaching implications. For example, the question "What is a human?" hides other questions, such as "When—if ever—can a fetus be aborted?" and "What rights do severely disabled persons have?"

There is only one subject matter for education and that is life in all its manifestations.

—ALFRED NORTH WHITEHEAD

The Terrain of Philosophy

four branches of philosophy

Philosophy covers a large amount of intellectual turf. The terrain of philosophy is divided into several areas, including four that are particularly important to the teacher: metaphysics, epistemology, axiology, and logic. These terms may be foreign to you, but we assure you that these four branches of philosophy are central to the educative process and, in fact, speak directly to the work of the teacher.

Metaphysics

what is real?

Metaphysics involves the attempt to explain the nature of the real world—the nature of existence. Metaphysics attempts to answer the question "What is real?" without relying on revealed religion, such as the Bible. Further, the metaphysician characteristically believes that it is not adequate to address fundamental matters, such as the nature of a human being or of the universe, simply by collecting data and formulating statistically significant generalizations. From most metaphysical perspectives, the true nature of a person cannot be captured by measuring or counting. A person is more than the sum of his or her height and weight, IQ and SAT scores, and other "vital" statistics.

In probing the nature of reality, the metaphysician asks a whole array of questions: "Does life have meaning?" "Are human beings free or totally determined?" "Is there a purpose to life?" "Is there a set of enduring principles that guide the operation of the universe?" "Can these principles be known?" "Is there no such thing as stability—rather, is our world ever-changing?"

Metaphysics and the Curriculum These abstract questions are ones that the educator cannot dismiss. Ultimately, the purpose of education is to explain reality to the young. The curriculum and how we teach it represent one statement of what that reality is. Although teachers may not actually be metaphysicians, they

teachers take metaphysical stands

Just as the inclusion of something in the curriculum signifies the value placed on it, exclusion bespeaks the culture's devaluation of it.

—JANE ROLAND MARTIN

do take a stand on metaphysical questions. If a teacher decides to teach because he or she believes the most important thing in the universe is a human mind, that career decision is driven by a metaphysical view: the importance of an individual person. The people on school boards also take stands on metaphysical issues. For example, whether or not a particular school system emphasizes vocational education or makes a major investment in educating individuals with severe mental disabilities depends very much on someone's decision about the nature of the person and the place of work in a person's life.

Epistemology

what is truth?

Epistemology deals with questions regarding knowledge and knowing. The epistemologist, seeking the true nature of knowing, asks such questions as "What is truth?" and "Is truth elusive, always changing and always dependent on the truth seeker's particulars of time, place, and angle of vision?" Some people, whom we call *skeptics,* question our capacity to ever really know the truths of existence. And some, whom we call *agnostics,* are convinced that knowledge of ultimate realities is an empty hope.

how do we acquire knowledge?

Epistemology deals not only with the nature of truth but also with the ways in which we can know reality. There are a variety of ways by which we can know, and each of these ways has its advocates and detractors. Among the ways of knowing are by divine revelation, by authority, through personal intuition, from our own five senses, from our own powers of reasoning, and through experimentation.

impact on teaching methods

Teaching and Ways of Knowing Questions concerning knowledge and knowing are, almost by definition, of great concern to the teacher. The epistemological question "How do you know this or that?" goes to the heart of teaching methodology. If a teacher wants her students to have a concept of democracy, how does she proceed? Does she explain the characteristics of different forms of government, such as monarchy and oligarchy, and then the characteristics of democracy? Or does she take a more hands-on approach and have the students do a role-playing exercise during which one student is appointed class dictator and the rest must obey the student-dictator's orders? The student who has only read about democracy "knows" it in an *epistemologically* different way than a student who has been bullied and harassed for several days by a teacher-appointed dictator.

It is becoming increasingly clear, in fact, that individuals differ in their degree of comfort with different methods of learning. Much of the teacher's work, then, is helping the student find the most effective way of knowing. Even if the teacher is not very interested in these issues, other people are interested, and sometimes they want to know the teacher's viewpoint.

creationist controversy

For example, many people have strong beliefs about the true origin of humankind and how one knows it. This issue is sometimes called the *creationist controversy,* and it rests on a sharp and fundamental argument over the questions "Who are we?" and "How did we get here?" One faction insists that the public schools should present the evidence of our origin that is given in the Book of Gen-



For many students, outdoor experiences are the key to learning. (© Paul Conklin)

esis, which we know by divine revelation. Others insist that the way to know the origin of the human race is through the scientific theory of evolution. So behind this ongoing educational controversy is a fundamental question of epistemology.

Axiology

Axiology focuses on the nature of values. As human beings, we quite naturally search for the correct and most effective way to live. In doing so, we engage questions of values. Of course, often when different people look at life, they come up with very different sets of values. For instance, *hedonists* believe in seeking pleasure and living for the moment. On the other hand, *stoics* have an austere way of looking at life and seek to be unaffected by pleasure or pain. Many people regard values from a religious perspective, asserting that unless humanity and the rest of the natural world were originally created by God, existence as we know it is just the meaningless coming together of cosmic dust and debris. In this view, the only genuine values derive from God.

what values should we pursue?

Most people would agree with Socrates that schools have a dual responsibility: to make people smart and to make them good. To the degree that teachers accept the second function, they are grappling with an axiological issue. In fact, teachers are intimately involved with questions of moral values. Young people are seeking ways to live lives that are worthwhile, and teachers traditionally have been expected to help students establish moral values both as individuals and as contributing members of society. (See Chapters 12 and 13 for more discussion of this issue.) Moral values such as honesty, respect for other people, and fairness are necessary if we are to live together in harmony. But although a large core of values exists on which a majority of people agree, such as respecting others and avoiding violence in settling disputes, other value issues separate people. Sexual behavior, capital punishment, gun control, and

teachers and moral values

The function of education is to teach one to think intensively and to think critically. Intelligence plus character—that is the goal of true education.

—MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR.

abortion are examples of contemporary social issues that involve a wide range of viewpoints about what is right.

Ethics and Aesthetics Axiology has two subtopics: ethics and aesthetics. **Ethics** takes us into the realm of values that relate to "good" and "bad" behavior, examining morality and rules of conduct. At one time, teaching children how to deal with issues of good/bad and right/wrong was the primary purpose of schooling. In recent decades the pendulum has swung the other way, and schools have been more concerned with factual knowledge and skills than with ethical knowledge. There are, however, many signs that schools are being called back to help children deal with ethical issues.[1]

issues of right and wrong

The subject of ethics not only teaches us how we can intellectually ascertain the "right" thing to do but also is often used to help us establish a particular set of standards, such as a code of ethics. In Chapter 12, we will give particular attention to these issues.

The second subtopic of axiology, **aesthetics,** deals with questions of values regarding beauty and art. Many discussions about the value of a particular film, book, or work of art are attempts to come to some aesthetic judgment on the value of the work. Whether or not a person "has good taste" is an example of a common aesthetic judgment.

issues of beauty

Logic

Logic is the branch of philosophy that deals with reasoning. One of the fundamental qualities that distinguishes human beings from brutes is that humans can *think.* Logic focuses on reasoning and modes of arguing that bring us to valid conclusions. The pursuit of logic is an attempt to think clearly and avoid vagueness and contradictions. Certain rules of logic have been identified, and they constitute the core of this branch of philosophy.

the human ability to think

Deductive Reasoning A primary task of the schools is to help children think clearly and communicate logically. Two types of reasoning are commonly taught in schools: deductive and inductive. In **deductive reasoning,** the teacher presents a general proposition and then illustrates it with a series of particulars. The most highly developed form of this approach is the classic method of the syllogism. In a *syllogism,* one makes two statements, and a third statement, a conclusion, is *deduced* or drawn from them. For instance:

reasoning from general to particular

All human beings are mortal.
I am a human being.
Therefore, I am mortal.

In deductive reasoning, such as in this example, the general proposition, an abstract concept, is followed by a factual statement, which in turn leads to a new factual statement and the creation of new knowledge, at least for the learner.

As another example, imagine that in October Mrs. Wells, a fifth-grade teacher, writes on the board:

> All trees that shed their leaves at the end of a growing season are deciduous trees.

As a two-week project, Mrs. Wells asks her class to observe and record data about the trees that surround their school. For two weeks, the students observe the three dozen maple trees shedding their leaves during the fall. The teacher then writes her earlier sentence on the board again:

> All trees that shed their leaves at the end of a growing season are deciduous trees.

And, using their observational data (and a little intellectual nudging from Mrs. Wells), the students complete the syllogism:

> Maple trees shed their leaves at the end of the growing season.
> Therefore, maple trees are deciduous.

Then the students try to identify other types of trees that fit the deciduous classification.

Much of what a teacher does in school is helping children both acquire the intellectual habits of deductive thinking and expand their storehouse of knowledge through this process.

Inductive Reasoning **Inductive reasoning** works in the opposite fashion. The teacher sets forth particulars, from which a general proposition is derived or *induced.* For instance, the teacher may wish to lead the students to the discovery that water is essential to plant growth. He gives each child two similar plants (a different type, from weeds to flowers, for each child) and then has each student daily feed one plant with water and leave the other plant without water. After ten days the teacher has the students report the condition of their plants, and from all of these individual reports he leads the students to generalize about the necessity of water to plant life. In fact, they have derived or induced their answer.

reasoning from particular to general

One ongoing debate among educators is between advocates of deductive versus inductive teaching. As is true for most controversial issues, good cases can be made for both sides of the argument. Both forms of reasoning are needed. Both have different strengths and weaknesses. For instance, in the plant example, using induction to teach the simple concept "living plants need water" means a good deal of work for the teacher. But the rewards can be great: the student who has closely observed his pet petunia shrivel up and die will hold that concept in a special way.

need for both types of reasoning

Logic, however, is not confined to inductive and deductive reasoning. To use logic means to think clearly, in many different ways. Teachers need logic in many aspects of their work, from trying to understand the behavior of a child who

seems to have an erratic learning pattern to developing tests that accurately measure what has been taught in a course. Most of all, teachers need to model this clear, logical thinking for students.

Overall, the four branches of philosophy—metaphysics, epistemology, axiology, and logic—address some of the major concerns of the teacher. The answers they suggest to the teacher and the implications they have for actual classroom practice are areas to which we now turn.

Schools of Educational Philosophy

Answers to the philosophical questions that pepper the preceding section have almost infinite variety. Over the years, however, certain answers by particular philosophers have received more attention and allegiance than others. These more enduring sets of answers or world views represent schools of philosophy. Some started with the early Greek philosophers and have grown and developed through the centuries. Other schools of thought are more recent and offer fresh, new formulations to ultimate questions.

Down through the centuries, philosophers have had a great deal to say about education, and their influences on schooling have been profound. In this section, we describe four philosophies that have had a major impact on education and demonstrate the variety of ways in which teaching and learning can be conceived. It is important to keep in mind, however, that many important philosophies relevant to education—such as neo-Thomism and classical Eastern thought—are not included here. In addition, there are major educational ideas that do not quite qualify as "philosophies" but are having a big impact on schools.

four philosophies influential in American education

The four philosophies we have selected for this chapter are perennialism, progressivism, essentialism, and existentialism. We have selected these not because they are our pick of the "Top Four Philosophical Hits" but because each viewpoint has been influential in educational thought and practice. For each of these philosophies, we present first a brief statement of the core ideas and then a "personal point of view" by a teacher (fictitious) who is committed to that particular philosophy. We have tried to show that these positions are not just windy abstractions or the preoccupations of ivory tower thinkers; rather, they shape what people teach and how they teach it.

Perennialism

nature is unchanging

Perennialism views nature and, in particular, human nature as constant, that is, as undergoing little change. Beneath the superficial differences from one century or decade to the next, the rules that govern the world and the characteristics that make up human nature stay the same. The perennialist, too, is quite comfortable with Aristotle's definition of human beings as rational animals. Education is crucial to perennialists because it develops a person's rationality and thus saves the person from being dominated by the instinctual or animal-like side of life. It is

Kevin and Jim's Guide to Developing Your Own Philosophy of Education

For many readers of this text, developing one's own philosophy of education must seem a daunting task. It is made even more demanding when one realizes that before one can develop a philosophy of education, one needs to do the groundwork of forming or adopting a particular philosophy: that is, one must have a general theory of how the world is put together, what laws regulate the universe and underlie all knowledge and reality. For younger readers in particular, who lack a great storehouse of experience and are relatively new to the world of ideas, the prospect of having to form a philosophy of education is unsettling. But that is as it should be. Something as fundamentally important as a person's basic understanding of reality should not come easily, like buying shoes or going for a walk.

Everyone, at some level, has a philosophy of life. It may be as crude as "Whatever makes me happy is therefore good" or as elaborate as a professional philosopher's own version of enlightened self-interest as the basis for improving the human species. But all philosophies of life ought to be something that individuals have worked out in their own minds and that they use to guide their interpretations of life and their decisions. Their philosophy is the lens through which they observe and interpret reality. As already mentioned, developing a philosophy of education is then a subset of having a guiding philosophy. It is the playing out of the educational implications of one's basic philosophy. But how does one develop a philosophy of education? Here are some suggestions you might consider:

1. Read this chapter carefully, thinking about what the terms mean and how they relate to the different schools of philosophy described. Realize, too, that this chapter is meant only as a door opener—a beginning.
2. As you read, "try on" the ideas. Look at the world through the lens or angle of vision of each philosophy, searching for the one or ones that best "fit" you. Once you have made a tentative decision, start integrating the chosen philosophy into your everyday life ("Well, if I really think 'Humans are alone in a hostile universe,' I ought to do X, Y, and Z"). Discuss your views with your classmates and your teachers. (Be careful, though, how you talk to your parents. From firsthand experience as parents, we can tell you that this topic can panic them!)
3. Take a philosophy course or two as part of your general or liberal education. This will give you a systematic exposure to philosophical thought. Also, it will give you a structured opportunity to explore your own thinking more carefully.
4. Think about how you would want your own child to be educated. Depending on whether you are an inductive or a deductive thinker (see pp. 328–329), start with the child and decide what and how you would want him or her to be taught, or start with your philosophical principles (for example, "Humans are rational beings") and deduce educational principles from them (for example, "The aim of schooling should be to develop a student's capacity for reasoning"). What would a school for your child be like? What would it emphasize? What would it de-emphasize?
5. As you take education courses and read education texts, ask yourself, "What is the teacher's or author's philosophy of education? What does he or she hold as most important? What is the underlying idea that is driving the point being made here?" (We acknowledge that this is difficult, but with practice this ability develops.)
6. As you observe in classrooms during your teacher education program (and even on your own campus), try to figure out what the teachers' philosophies of education are. If you can do it tactfully, ask them questions such as "What do you hope your students become?" "What would be an ideal outcome of your teaching?" "What is the most important thing students should be getting from their education?"
7. Think! (That's what philosophy is all about.)

Socrates *(469–399 B.C.)*

The ancient Greek philosopher Socrates was condemned to death for supposedly corrupting the youth of Athens. Today we know him primarily through the written "dialogues" of his student Plato. How much Plato's portrayal resembled the actual man is open to debate. Nevertheless, the Socrates of Plato's dialogues has had a deep and lasting influence on both philosophy and education, giving us such common terms as Socratic teaching, Socratic questioning, *and* the Socratic method. *The following passage explains some of the basic tenets of Socrates' approach.*

Socrates expressly denied that he was a teacher in the commonly accepted sense of that term. What he meant by this—at least in part—was that he was not a sophist, a professional pedagogue who, for a fee, would endeavor to transmit some knowledge that he possessed to someone who lacked it. Not only did Socrates charge no fees, he claimed not to have command of any such knowledge.

The learning that Socrates was concerned with simply didn't fit the information-transmission model of education implicit in the Athenian public mind and the teaching profession. Neither did his pioneering focus on virtue and wisdom square well with the popular attachment to honor, fame, and wealth. As he tries to explain at one point to Anytus in Plato's dialogue *Meno,* "we are inquiring whether the good men of today and of the past knew how to pass on to another the virtue they themselves possessed, or whether a man cannot pass it on or receive it from another." Since it was clear that wisdom and virtue could not simply be passed on from one person to another, Socrates sought an alternative way of conceptualizing how such excellences of mind and character were acquired. What was the teacher's role in that acquisition, if not simply being a supplier?

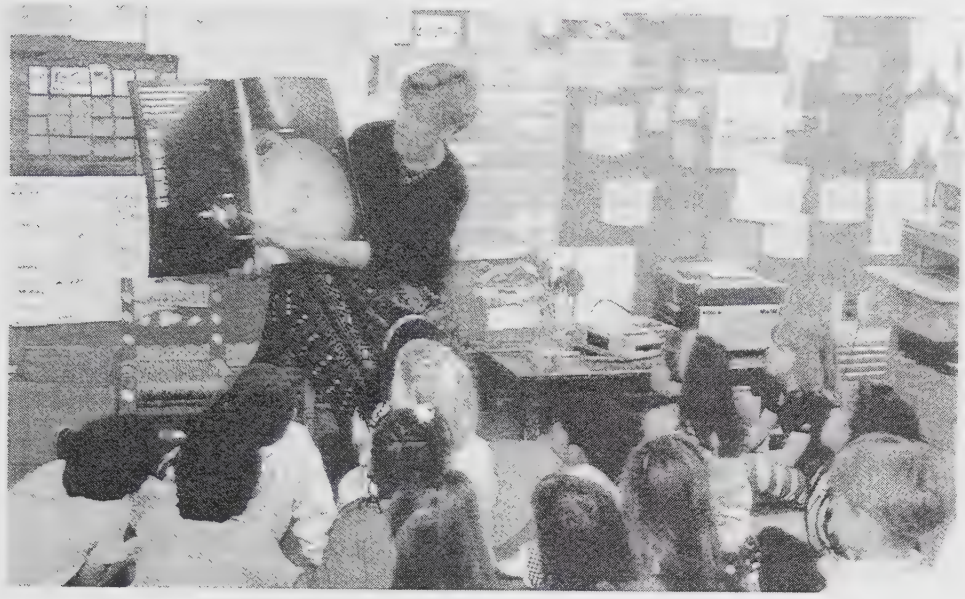
As an alternative to the receiving-knowledge-from-another model, Socrates proposed that learning was "recollection"—that is, a process akin to dredging up knowledge from one's own resources. "Teaching" on this model he later compared to acting as a "midwife"—assisting in the birth of knowledge *in* another person rather than serving as a supplier of it *to* another person. This was to be accomplished in conversation, mostly by skillful questioning and cross-examination ("Socratic teaching," "Socratic questioning," "Socratic method").

Socrates admitted to behaving like a "gadfly" in this dialectical pursuit of truth, goading people into serious thinking about human living. And he also confessed to acting like a benumbing "sting ray" or "torpedo fish," referring to his ability to render people tongue-tied about matters that they thought they already knew perfectly well—but actually didn't. Not until people felt the sting of not really knowing about life's really important matters could they be prompted to inquire into them seriously.

Source: Reprinted by permission of Steven S. Tigner.

the intellect, not the body or emotions or instincts, that sets a person apart from the beasts. To develop intellect means to learn how to dominate and direct instinctual and emotional energies toward higher, more rational purposes. Therefore, the nourishment of the intellect is believed to be the essential role of the school.

Perennialism in the Curriculum For the perennialist, the intellect does not develop merely by contact with what is relevant or satisfying. The intellect is



An early introduction to the solar system: "We're the third rock from the sun!" (© David Young-Wolff/PhotoEdit)

nourished only by truth. Since truth resides in the nature of things, it is constant and changeless. Although our grasp of it is incomplete, truth is best revealed in the enduring classics of Western culture. Classical thought, then, should be emphasized as a subject matter in schools. Perennialists believe that schools should teach disciplined knowledge through the traditional subjects of history, language, mathematics, science, and the arts. Perennialists place particular emphasis on literature and the humanities because these subjects provide the greatest insight into the human condition. Although this view of the curriculum is evident in many areas of education, in its most complete form it is known as the "Great Books approach," developed by Robert Maynard Hutchins and Mortimer Adler. The Great Books, which constitute a shelf of volumes stretching from Homer's *Iliad* to Albert Einstein's *On the Electrodynamics of Moving Bodies,* are a perennialist's ideal curriculum.

"Great Books approach"

Since the early 1990s, a controversy has arisen over the content of literature, history, and philosophy courses. Scholars and students have criticized colleges and high schools for promoting a "Eurocentric" view of knowledge and culture, one that ignores the contributions of all but "dead, white, male writers and thinkers." They urge a more inclusive curriculum, one that gives greater attention to women, minorities, and Eastern, African, and Hispanic cultures. Whereas some take this movement as a direct attack on the perennialist's curriculum, others see it as a natural and useful extension of the perennialist's search for the best of the world's wisdom. One perennialist friend of ours, who welcomes this new approach, suggested, "Sure, students should know about Islamic literature and Eastern philosophy, but they should first get to know their own neighborhood, Western culture."

controversy about Eurocentrism

The Paideia Proposal For the perennialist, then, immersion in these great works helps students reach the perennialist's goal, which is a state of human ex-

cellence that the ancients called *paideia.* This is a state not only of enlightenment but also of goodness. As such, it is a goal that perennialists believe all humans should seek.

approach of the Paideia Group

In the 1980s, Mortimer Adler and a group of educators breathed new life into perennialism with the publication of *The Paideia Proposal* and then a series of supporting books.[2] *The Paideia Proposal* presents this educational philosophy not as an austere, joyless curriculum, but as an exciting, involving intellectual and aesthetic journey. Several of the Paideia Group who worked with Adler in formulating this plan are both minority group members and superintendents of big-city school districts serving a large population of poor and minority students. Much of the appeal of *The Paideia Proposal* is that it asserts that *all* children, not just the gifted or the privileged children of the rich, should have this classical education. Members of the Paideia Group see it as providing both quality and equality in education. Although interest in *The Paideia Proposal* has faded somewhat in recent years, another curricular movement has attracted the interest of educators with perennialist leanings. Called the Core Knowledge program, this curriculum spells out in detail what students from kindergarten to eighth grade should know. Based on E. D. Hirsch Jr.'s book *Cultural Literacy,* this content-rich curriculum stresses academics and the learning of specific knowledge. However, because of the curriculum's emphasis on science and the currency of much of literature, it is hardly a pure perennialist curriculum. Currently the Core Knowledge curriculum is being used in over 1,100 schools, and its popularity is spreading rapidly.[3]

Core Knowledge program

Education as Preparation for Life Education, then, is of great importance to perennialists, but it is an education that is rigorous and demanding. Perennialists hold that education should not attempt to imitate life or be lifelike; rather, education is preparation for life. Students should submit themselves to a disciplined search for the classical wisdom rather than try to discover what might seem to be personally meaningful.

disciplined book learning prepares for life

In summary, the perennialists' view is that one learns by encountering the great works and ideas of the past. It is a view that leans heavily on the authority of the collected wisdom of the past and looks to traditional thought to guide us in the present. Further, it sees education as protecting and conserving the best thought from the past. In this sense, the perennialist favors a very traditional or conservative ("conservative" as in *conserving* the best of the past) view of education. The next section presents the point of view of a more or less typical perennialist teacher.

PERSONAL POINT OF VIEW: A Perennialist Teacher

electives as wasted time

I came into education twelve years ago for two reasons. First, I was bothered by what I thought was all the nonsense in the curriculum and by all the time I and other students wasted in school. There was so much time given over to elective courses, many of which seemed to be little more than the teacher's hobby. There were so many dis-

Personal Point of View *(cont'd)*

cussions—discussions that seemed to go nowhere and seemed only vaguely to touch on the supposed content of the course. I often felt as if we were simply sharing our ignorance. My second reason for becoming a teacher is a more positive one. I am convinced that our society, our culture, has great ideas—ideas that have been behind our progress in the last 2,500 years. We need to share these ideas, to vigorously teach these ideas to the young.

Essentially, I see my job as passing on to the next generation, as effectively and forcefully as I can, the important truths: for instance, about human dignity and the capacity of people to do evil. That has always been the teacher's role until recent times, when we seem to have lost our way. I am convinced that a society that doesn't make the great ideas and the great thoughts the foundation of education is bound to fail. Nations and societies do falter and fall. The last fifty years have seen several formerly prominent nations slip to the wayside while other younger, more vigorous countries, like Singapore and Korea, have risen. I am convinced that most of those failed countries fell because of the inadequate education they provided. I am dedicated to the goal of not letting that happen here.

humans not inherently good

I think kids are just great. In fact, I've given my life to working with them. But I don't think it is fair to them or to me or to our country to allow them to set the rules, to decide what they want to learn, or to tell me how to teach it. Sure, I listen to them and try to find out where they are, but I make the decisions. My job is to teach; theirs is to learn. And in my classroom, those functions are quite clear. Really, students are too young to know what are the important things to learn. They simply don't know what they need to know. As a teacher, as a representative of the larger culture and of society, that's my responsibility. Turning that responsibility over to students or giving them a huge say in what is taught just strikes me as wrong.

teachers set the rules

I have another currently unpopular idea: I believe that students should be pushed. School should be very demanding, because life is very demanding. I'm not worried about their so-called self-esteem. Self-esteem is empty unless it is earned. It will come when they discipline themselves. All of us when we are young are lazy. We would much rather play than work. All of this trying to make school like play is just making it more difficult for students to acquire the self-discipline needed to take control of their lives. What schools are turning out right now—and it pains me to say this—are a lot of self-important, self-indulgent kids. And it's not their fault. It's our fault as teachers and parents.

self-discipline needed

And the answer is so simple! We just need to go back to the great ideas and achievements of the past and make them the focal point of education. Also, when we achieve this goal, the students don't mind working. The kids and the other teachers kid me about being a slave driver. I don't really pay attention to that. But I do pay attention to the large number of students, both college bound and not college bound, who come back two or three years out of high school and tell me how much they value having been pushed, how glad they are that I put them in contact with the very best!

focus on great ideas of the past

Progressivism

Progressivism is a relatively young philosophy of education. It came to prominence in the 1920s through the work of John Dewey. The fact that this phi-

losophy rather quickly had a major impact on American education almost guaranteed that it would become controversial.

nature is always changing

Progressivism views nature as being in flux, as ever changing. Therefore, knowledge must continually be redefined and rediscovered to keep up with that change. Whereas other philosophies see the mind as a jug to be filled with truth, or as a muscle that needs to be exercised and conditioned, the progressive views the mind as a problem solver. People are naturally exploring, inquiring entities. When faced with an obstacle, they will try to get around it. When faced with a question, they will try to find an answer.

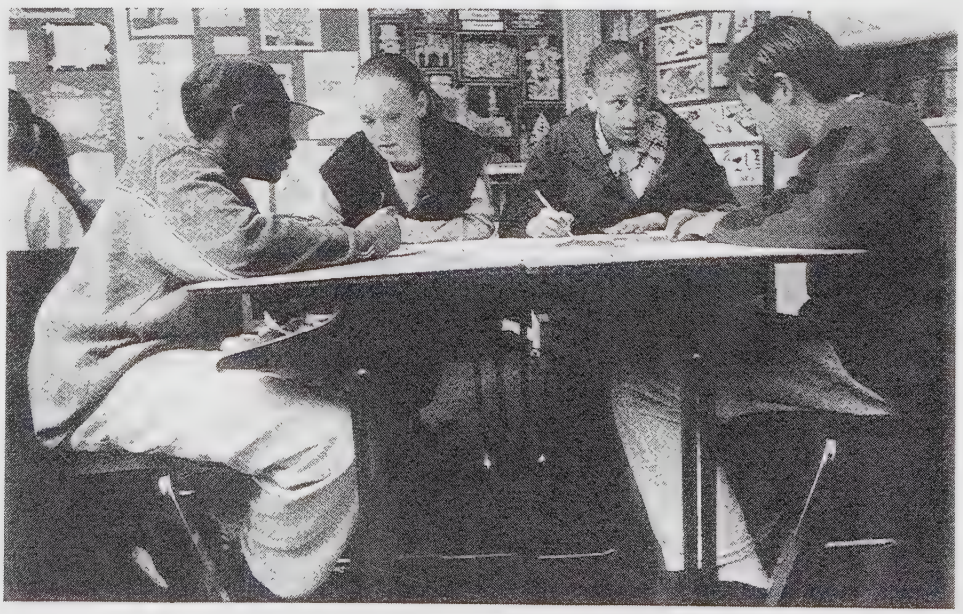
emphasis on problem solving

The Student as Problem Solver For the progressive, education aims to develop this problem-solving ability. The student should start with simple study projects and gradually learn more systematic ways to investigate until he or she has finally mastered the scientific method. Method is of great importance to the progressive. On the other hand, knowledge—formal, traditional knowledge—is not given the same honored place. For the progressive, there is really no special, sacrosanct knowledge. The value of knowledge resides in its ability to solve human problems.

Instruction begins when you, the teacher, learn from the learner, put yourself in his place so that you may understand what he is learning and the way he understands it.

— SØREN KIERKEGAARD

Regarding the school curriculum, progressives believe that a student can learn problem-solving skills from electronics just as easily as from Latin, from agronomy just as well as from geometry. Progressive teachers often use traditional subject matter, but they use it differently from the way it is used in a traditional classroom. The problems students are trying to solve are of paramount importance. The subjects contribute primarily through providing methodologies to help solve the problems, but they also provide information that leads to solutions. The focus is on *how* to think rather than on *what* to think.



Learning how to learn from one another is an important educational goal. (© Elizabeth Crews)

John Dewey *(1859–1952)*

John Dewey, the founder of progressivism, is widely considered the single most influential figure in the history of American educational thought.

No prodigy as a child, Dewey attended public schools and the University of Vermont. As a graduate student in philosophy at Johns Hopkins University, he was deeply influenced by the thought of William James, the philosophical pragmatist. Dewey recognized the implications for education of James's argument that ideas are valuable only insofar as they help to solve human problems. Calling his own philosophy *instrumentalism* to emphasize the principle that ideas are instruments, Dewey argued that philosophy and education are identical, both involving the practical, experimental attempt to improve the human condition.

The public school curriculum in the nineteenth century was scholarly and classical, designed to improve the mind by equipping it with large doses of approved culture. Dewey denounced this curriculum as the invention of a parasitic leisure class totally unsuited to the demands of industrialized society. He claimed that the schools were divorced from life and that they failed to teach children how to *use* knowledge. The schools, he said, should teach children not what to think but how to think through a "continuous reconstruction of experience." In *Democracy and Education,* published in 1916, Dewey pointed out that Americans were being called on to make crucial political decisions unprecedented in history and that the schools offered no preparation for the responsibility of citizenship in a democracy. Dewey called for concentrated study of democratic processes as they are manifested in the units of political organization with which the child is familiar—the school, the local community, and the state government—in ascending order of complexity. But his most radical suggestion was that students be given the power to make decisions affecting life in the school in a democratic way. Participation in life, rather than preparation for it, he considered the watchword of an effective education.

In 1893, Dewey established an elementary school at the University of Chicago. It was experimental in two senses: in its use of experiment and inquiry as the method by which the children learned and in its role as a laboratory for the transformation of the schools. The activities and occupations of adult life served as the core of the curriculum and the model teaching method. Children began by studying and imitating simple domestic and industrial tasks. In later years they studied the historical development of industry, invention, group living, and nature. Dewey wrote that we must "make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society and permeated with the spirit of art, history, and science."

The late 1920s to the early 1940s, the era of progressive education, saw a massive attempt to implement Dewey's ideas, but the rigid manner in which they were interpreted led to remarkable extravagances in some progressive schools. For instance, some educators considered it useless to teach geography because maps changed so rapidly. The role of subject matter was gradually played down in progressive schools, replaced by a stress on method and process. The rationale was that it was more important to produce a "good citizen" than a person who was "educated" in the classical sense. Well into his nineties, Dewey fought vehemently against these corruptions of his views.

The centrality of John Dewey's thought to American education has waxed and waned over the years. Traditionally more popular in universities than in actual classroom practice, Dewey is often invoked by people attempting to make the schools more humanistic and the curriculum more relevant to the current world. Whether in favor or out, John Dewey represents the United States' most distinctive contribution to educational thought.

student's concerns most important

Progressive educators believe that the place to begin an education is with the student rather than with the subject matter. The teacher tries to identify what the student's concerns are and tries to shape those concerns into problem statements. The student's motivation to solve the problem is the key. The teacher then helps the student move from hunches about the solution to development of hypotheses and then to methods of testing those hypotheses. Rather than being a presenter of knowledge or a taskmaster, the teacher is an intellectual guide, a *facilitator* in the problem-solving process. Students are encouraged to be imaginative and resourceful in solving problems. They are directed to a variety of methods, from reading books and studying the traditional disciplines to performing experiments and analyzing data.

The School as Training Ground for Democracy The progressive school has a unique atmosphere. It is not a storehouse of wisdom or a place with clearly defined roles and authority structures. Rather, the school is a small society in itself, a place where students are not only preparing for life but are also living it.

Teaching is itself a sort of political activism. We change lives. To take just three cases that come immediately to mind, activist teaching can help prepare a welfare mother for law school, turn a hockey player into a worker for environmental causes, or divert a young woman of color from her accounting major to a career as a teacher in inner-city schools.

—NANCY J. HOLLAND

Progressive educators believe the school should be democratic in structure so that children can learn to live well in a democracy. Group activity and group problem solving are emphasized. This is one reason many teachers who describe themselves as progressive educators are enthusiastic about cooperative learning, the relatively new approach to classroom instruction discussed in Chapter 8.

Implicit in the progressive approach is the belief that children not only must learn to solve their own problems, but also must develop the view that they can and should be involved in the problems of their neighbors. Often, then, the problem-solving activities of the progressive school spill out into the community, dealing with issues like ecology and poverty. In this way, students learn an important principle of progressive education: knowledge should be used to redesign the world.

Even though it has been with us for more than seventy years, many see progressive education as a new philosophy of education for a new people. As opposed to most other philosophies, it is very American. It has no undue reverence for the past or for authority; rather, it is future oriented and practical. To judge your own sympathy for the progressive approach, see what you think of the following representative statement by a progressive educator.

PERSONAL POINT OF VIEW: A Progressive Educator

I'm a progressive educator and proud of it. I'm not ducking that label just because it is unpopular in many quarters these days, usually among people who don't really understand what it is. Quite honestly, for the life of me, I cannot understand how a teacher can be anything *but* a progressive educator.

Personal Point of View *(cont'd)*

I'm dedicated to a few simple and, I believe, obvious principles. For one thing, children come into the world with a very plastic nature, capable of being molded one way or another. We should therefore work to surround them with activities and opportunities that bring them in contact with good things. Also, by their nature, children are curious. Instead of rejecting their curiosities, I believe we should build on them. Schools should be exciting, involving places where students are caught up in interesting activities.

children molded by environment

I think that I'm a progressive educator because I have looked at my own experiences. I know I learn best when I'm trying to solve a puzzle or a problem that really interests me. And somehow I've always been able to get much more interested in how we're going to solve the problems of our own society than in the affairs of the Athenians and Spartans. I can get much more involved in a research problem about which DVD player gives the best value for the dollar than about some dry economic problem presented to me by a teacher. And I really don't think I'm different from the overwhelming majority of students.

learning through direct experience

I see many of my fellow teachers spending all their energy damming up student curiosity and imposing work on their students. And then the teachers wonder why they themselves are so tired or burned out. I'm sure it's quite tiring to try to convert children into file cabinets and to stuff facts into their heads all day.

One of the things that sets me apart is that I'm not so hung up as others are on what I call the "talky" curriculum. I am convinced that students learn most effectively by *doing,* by experiencing events and then reflecting on and making meaning out of what they have experienced. I think more science is learned on a nature walk than from the same time spent reading a textbook or hearing teacher explanations. I think students learn more abstract principles, such as democracy, from trying to set up and maintain a democratic society in their classroom than from a lot of learned lectures and dusty prose on the subject. I'm trying to get to their hearts and their heads. The traditional approach gets to neither place.

To me, life is a matter of solving problems. New times have new problems and demand new knowledge. I don't want my students to be ready for life in the eighteenth century. I want them to be effective, functioning, curious citizens of the twenty-first century. They are going to need to be able to develop solutions to fit new and unique problems. Although much knowledge is important, they need to realize that knowledge is only today's tentative explanation of how things work. Much of what we know now is incorrect and will have to be replaced.

focus on current and future problems

It's not that I think that ideas and content and the traditional subjects are worthless. Far from it. I teach much of the same material as other teachers. However, I get there by a different route. I let the issues and problems emerge and then give the students a chance to get answers and to solve problems. And, as they quickly learn, they have to know a great deal to solve some of the problems. Often they get themselves involved with some very advanced material. The only difference is that now they want to. Now they have the energy. And, boy, once they get going, do they have energy! No, it doesn't always work. I have students who coast, and I've had projects that failed. But I'd put my track record against those of my more traditional colleagues any day.

Essentialism

Essentialism is another uniquely American philosophy of education, but it has had more impact and meets with more favor outside the United States than does progressive educational thought. Essentialism, in fact, began in the 1930s and 1940s as a reaction to what were seen as the excesses of progressive education.

two origins: idealism and realism

The Roots of Essentialism **Essentialism** has its philosophical origins in two older philosophies and draws something from each. From *idealism,* it takes the view of the mind as the central tool for understanding reality and learning the essential ideas and knowledge that we need to live well. From *realism,* it takes the tenet that the mind learns through contact with the physical world; therefore, to know reality, we must learn to observe and measure the physical world accurately.

essential skills and knowledge to be learned

The essentialists believe that there exists a critical core of information and skill that an educated person must have. Further, essentialists are convinced that the overwhelming number of children can and should learn this core of essential material. The school, then, should be organized to transmit this knowledge and skill as effectively as possible.

Essentialism begins to sound a good deal like perennialism. Although these two views have much in common, some important differences exist between them. For one thing, essentialists do not focus as intently on "truths" as do perennialists. They are less concerned with the classics as being the primary repository of worthwhile knowledge. They search for what will help a person live a productive life today, and if the current realities strongly suggest that students need to graduate from high school with computer literacy, the essentialist will find a place for this training in the curriculum. In this regard, essentialists are very practical. Whereas the perennialist will hold fast to the Great Books, the essentialist will make more room for scientific, technical, and even vocational emphases in the curriculum. Essentialists see themselves as valuing the past but not being captured by it.

beyond the classics

Essentialist Goals and Practices For essentialists, the aim of education is to teach the young the essentials they need to live well in the modern world. To realize this goal, schools should focus on the established disciplines, which are the "containers" of organized knowledge. The elementary years should concentrate on the basics—the "three Rs" and the other foundational tools needed to gain access to the disciplined knowledge with which one begins to come in contact in high school.

established disciplines

Although there is some debate about what is "essential" in the curriculum, essentialists believe this is not a debate to which children can contribute fruitfully. Therefore, the role of the student is simply that of learner. The individual child's interests, motivations, and psychological states are not given much attention. Nor do essentialists hold fast to what they would call a "romantic" view of children as being naturally good. They see the students not as evil but as deficient and needing discipline and pressure to keep learning. School is viewed as a place where children come to learn what they need to know. Teachers are not guides but au-

student as learner, teacher as authority



This experiment will make an abstract principle more understandable.
(© Elizabeth Crews)

thorities. The student's job is to listen and learn. Given the imperfect state of the students, the teacher must be ingenious in finding ways to engage their imaginations and minds.

Both progressive and essentialist educators claim their particular approach is the true American philosophy of education. One can make a case that they both are, but each reflects different aspects of the American personality. Progressivism represents our antiauthoritarian, experimental, and visionary side; essentialism speaks to our more conservative, structured side. In recent years, many of the tensions and public debates in American education can be traced to struggles between these two philosophies of education. Clearly, though, essentialist educators gained ground on progressive educators in the 1980s and 1990s. Concerns over the country's global economic competitiveness and the perceived "softness" of our schools have created a receptive climate for essentialist views. The following section offers the perspective of a representative essentialist teacher.

If a man empties his purse into his head, no man can take it away from him. An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest.

—*Benjamin Franklin*

PERSONAL POINT OF VIEW: An Essentialist Teacher

In my view, the world is filled with real problems, and the young people who leave school have to be ready to take up the challenge of life and solve those problems. So for me the watchword in education is *usefulness.* I think everything that is taught has to pass the test of whether or not it is useful. My job as a teacher is to find out what is useful and then to make sure the students learn it.

stress on usefulness

I believe that school should be relevant to the young. However, my view of what is relevant is very different from the views of lots of other people. For me, relevance is

Personal Point of View *(cont'd)*

selecting learning from the past

not what is personally "meaningful" or a "do-your-own-thing" approach. What is relevant is what helps the individual live well and what benefits humanity. For that we need to look very carefully at the past and sort out the most valuable learning. That is what should be taught and what should be learned. I find the back-to-the-classics approach quite valuable. However, most advocates go too far in concentrating on classics. They also stress the humanities and the arts a little too much and tend to underplay science and technology. If children are going to function in today's world, and if our world is going to solve all the problems it's confronted with, we have to give more attention to science and technology than we have in the past. But clearly the past is the place to begin our search for the relevant curriculum.

It's not the most pleasing or satisfying image, but I think the concept of the student as an empty jug is the most accurate one. Certainly kids come to school with lots of knowledge and lots of interests. However, the job of school is to teach them what they don't know and to teach these things in a systematic and organized way. It's not to fill their minds with isolated fragments of information but to fill them with systematic knowledge. They need tools to learn, and, as they get older, they need human insights and skills that come from the disciplines.

task orientation and discipline

Given that there is so much to learn, an emphasis on student "interests" and "projects" and "problem solving" is quite wasteful. There is plenty of time for that outside of school or when school is over. Inside the school, the teachers are the authorities, and the students are there to learn what they don't know. The environment should be task oriented and disciplined. It doesn't have to be oppressive or unjust or any of that. I tell my students that learning is not necessarily going to be fun, but that at the end of the year they will have a great sense of accomplishment. I'd take accomplishment over fun anytime. By and large, most students do too.

Existentialism

the ideas of Sartre

Modern existentialism was born amid the pain and disillusionment of World War II and the period immediately following it. Its founder, the French philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre, broke with previous thinkers by asserting that "existence" comes before "essence." Unlike most philosophers, who defined the nature of humans as rational animals, or problem solvers, or what-have-you and then went on to speak about existence, Sartre believed that our existence comes first, before any definition of what we are. It is up to us to define ourselves in some sort of relationship to that existence.

In other words, **existentialism** proposes that we should not accept any predetermined creed or philosophical system and from that try to define who we are. Instead, we must take personal responsibility for deciding who we are. The process of answering the question "Who are we?" has a start, but really has no ending. It begins at a very crucial event in the lives of young people, what Sartre called the *existential moment*—that point somewhere toward the end of youth when we realize for the first time that we exist as independent agents. Each of us is suddenly struck with the fact that *I am!* With that realization comes the existential question "Okay, I exist, but who am I and what should I do?"

the existential moment

Austere, European Existentialism The European brand of existentialism tends to be a very austere philosophy. Its practitioners tend to reject all other philosophies. Although there is a vital school called Christian Existentialism, with roots in the work of the Danish minister-philosopher Søren Kierkegaard (some scholars claim Kierkegaard to be the true founder of modern existentialism), "mainline" existentialists reject God and the concept of a benevolent universe. They believe that we live an alien, meaningless existence on a small planet in an unimportant galaxy in an indifferent universe. Whatever meaning a person can make of life has to be his or her own. There is no ultimate meaning.

freedom and responsibility

The only certainty for the existentialist is that we are free. This freedom, however, is wrapped up in a search for meaning. To the existentialist, we define ourselves—that is, we make meaning in our world—by the choices we make. In effect, we are what we choose—no more, no less. No God will throw us a life preserver. No circumstance will shade our responsibility. We are responsible for what we do and what we are.

The one thing the individual can be sure of is death—the complete ending of any kind of existence. Existing in a meaningless world with no afterlife provides the ongoing tension in the existentialist's life. "Why struggle, why continue, if there is no hope?" It is in accepting this question, and the "death dread" buried in it, that the existentialist can gain dignity.

The American Version Existentialism has affected American education in a somewhat softer version. The *meaningless universe* aspect is downplayed, and the *quest for personal meaning* is emphasized.

entrance into American education

Existentialism has entered American education not under the flag of existentialism per se but under several different flags: for instance, the *human potential movement* of the 1960s and 1970s, which stressed the development of all aspects of the person, and an approach to moral education called *values clarification* in which each individual discovers his or her own values. In addition, existentialism's focus on the individual and his or her responsibilities is as American as the Fourth of July.

Given the fact that by law our schools must be theologically neutral (they cannot advocate any religious creed or world view), there is, by default, an unanswered question about the meaning of existence. In a way, the existentialists' approach of finding meaning through a quest for self has filled this gap. Children are warned not to accept anyone else's answers or values but to search for their own. They learn that they should make their own choices and their own commitments in life rather than being told what they should choose and to what they should commit themselves.

Existentialism in the Classroom As it exists in the classroom, existentialism is not a set of curricular materials. Rather, it is a point of view that influences all that the teacher teaches and how he or she teaches. It tries to engage the child in central questions of defining life. It attempts to help the child acknowledge his or her own freedom and accept the responsibility for that freedom. It aims to help

students define life for themselves

the child realize that the answers imposed from the outside may not be real answers. The only real answers are the ones that come from inside each person, that are authentically his or her own.

individualized, not group, learning

For this reason, the existentialist is against not only the heavy hand of authority but also the group emphasis in education. Homogeneous grouping, group projects, and pressures for social adjustment are always keeping from the child the ultimate truths: you are alone and you must make your own meaning. The group, or a social emphasis in the form and content of education, is an anesthetic that prevents perception of the ultimate nature of the way things are. On the other hand, content and activities that help the child confront his or her own freedom go to the essence of what school should be about. To get a better perspective on these views, consider the following account by an existentialist teacher.

PERSONAL POINT OF VIEW: An Existentialist Teacher

dislike of conventional education

When I was in college, the last thing I thought I'd become was a teacher. I was really turned off by education—all of that fact cramming and mind bending. I still am quite negative about most of the education that is going on around me. I get along with most of my fellow teachers, and I guess I appear like them on the surface, but I look at the world in a very different way, and that makes some of them uneasy. They are busy trying to give the kids this dogma, that dogma—whether it's democracy or the scientific method. And nothing makes them quite so uptight as students seriously questioning what they have to say. Students who question to see if they have it right so they can get it right on the test are fine. But probing or challenging questions are signs that the students reject what they're getting, and that really makes teachers nervous.

personal, authentic thinking

What I'm trying to do is get the kids to listen to their own rhythms. So much of their life is programmed from home, from television, from the crazy peer-group fads and the press of groupthink in the school. I'm trying to get them to break through all that. I want them to begin to find out who *they* are and what *they* feel and what *they* think. I want them to have authentic reactions to things and realize that those are the ones that are important, not what the world's authorities tell them is important. It sounds quite simple, but in fact it is very difficult. Kids find great security in not thinking. I guess we all do. It's so much easier to take someone else's answers and pretend they are ours. But that is just another form of slavery.

emphasis on involvement

People sometimes call what I do a radical approach. But the aim of education has always been the examined life. Socrates said it long ago: "Know thyself." That's what I'm aiming at. This may sound like I have students look off into space and ask the question "Who am I?" Far from it. I try to get my students passionately involved in life. I try to get them to have peak experiences, whether from watching a sunrise or hearing a Mozart sonata. This often leads to their own insight. Also, they have a lot to learn about the way the world works, and they have lots of skills they have to learn. And I'm busy getting them ready to take on that task. What I don't do is spend a lot of time on all these grouping—or what I call leveling—activities. I let students know that they are

Personal Point of View *(cont'd)*

individuals, and I have a very individualized instructional approach. My students spend a great deal of time on individual tasks, and they always go at their own rate.

If there is anything that I emphasize, it's managing their own freedom. They need to know that freedom is at the core of being a human being. I'm not talking about a "do-your-own-thing," pleasure-oriented freedom. I mean a freedom that fully embraces one's responsibility. The major message of school for me is that you've got lots of choices, but *you* are responsible for what you do with them. This is the reason I stress values clarification, an approach that helps students discover their own values and take the whole issue of values quite seriously.

values clarification

It may sound silly, but I found my educational philosophy at the back end of a car. A couple of years ago I was driving home from school, and at a red light I read the motto on a New Hampshire license plate ahead of me: "Live free or die." That's it. That's the whole ball game.

The Influence of Psychological Theories

Since early in the twentieth century, educational practice has been greatly influenced by the discipline of psychology. Psychology, the scientific study of the mind and human behavior, was a natural influence on the work of teachers, particularly with its focus on how we learn. Over the years, various schools of psychology have emerged, often having roots in particular philosophies. Some of these psychological theories have had a great deal to say to educators. Two in particular have had an impact on our schools: behaviorism and cognitive psychology.

Behaviorism: Conditioning Students or Setting Them Free?

The psychological theory of behavior modification or **behaviorism** is an educational approach that emerged directly from the pioneering research of the late B. F. Skinner. Behaviorists see learning as the learner's response to various stimuli (for example, sounds, words, people) present in the environment. Subscribing to the view that humans learn to act in specific ways based on either reward or punishment, the behaviorist teacher (1) uses clear objectives, spelled out in terms of the behaviors to be learned; (2) gives particular attention to the learning environment and what is rewarded and what is punished; and (3) closely monitors and gives the learner feedback on progress until the goal is achieved. In the 1960s and 1970s, many educators made behaviorism their dominant, organizing educational theory. However, this education movement was criticized as teacher dominated and causing teachers to treat students as passive objects to be conditioned. Nevertheless, behaviorism has made solid contributions to schooling, particularly in the areas of special education and classroom discipline. Further, behaviorist teachers counter the criticism of too much control of learning with the claim that their goal is to eventually put control of learning in their students' hands.

learning by rewards and punishments

Cognitive Psychology: Students as Makers of Meaning

Over the past twenty years, cognitive psychologists, drawing heavily on the trailblazing research of Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget, have discovered a great deal about how people learn to think and solve problems. Their discoveries have tremendous implications for how teachers teach. One primary research finding is that knowledge cannot be *given* directly from the teacher to the learner, but must be *constructed by the learner* and *reconstructed* as new information becomes available. Instead of seeing students as partially full vessels waiting to be filled, teachers should conceive of their work as creating learning situations where students can build their own knowledge through an active learning process. This perspective, known as **constructivism,** has become so influential in education in recent years that we give it particular attention here.

knowledge constructed

Education is not filling a bucket, but lighting a fire.

—WILLIAM B. YEATS

Constructivists view individuals as having an aversion to disorder. They believe that we are all continually trying to sort things out, to find clues and patterns amid our impressions that will help us to make sense of the world around us. When we encounter something new—say, a strange sound in the night—we immediately attempt to fit it into the patterns or structures we already possess ("That's the midnight whistle of the Ole Ninety-Eight headin' down to New Orleans"). But when we discover that our constructed knowledge is incorrect or we encounter new information ("Uh-oh! The railroad retired that train two years ago!"), we search for new input from our senses, seeking different patterns and structures ("Maybe that noise was from the hot water boiler and it's about to explode," or "Maybe that creepy guy from the apartment down below is on my fire escape," or "Maybe I shouldn't read Stephen King before going to bed!"). New knowledge about ourselves or the world is constructed. If a teacher asks students to solve a problem about the angle of a triangle, they go through a similar process ("If angle A of a triangle is 35 degrees and angle C is 105 degrees, and I already know that a triangle contains 180 degrees, then angle B has got to be 40 degrees"). Thus, the students construct their answer.

the individual as meaning maker

Cognitive psychologists have also discovered that if learners are to retain new information and find it meaningful, it must be related to what the learners already know. These knowledge structure relationships are called *schemas,* or *schemata,* and change constantly as new information is taken in. Thus, real learning involves moving from the Trivial Pursuit or Jeopardy type of factual or declarative knowledge to use-oriented knowledge—in other words, from "knowing what" to "knowing how." To do this, learners must develop cognitive learning strategies for particular kinds of learning tasks; that is, they have to learn how to think through or go about solving problems.

Implications of Constructivism for Teachers In the classroom, the constructivist teacher does four things: (1) actively involves students in real situations, (2) focuses on students' perceptions and points of view, (3) uses questions to provoke students' thoughts, and (4) places major value on the process of thought rather than on the answer or product. At heart, the constructivist teacher



Standards: High Academic Achievement or Test-Driven Classrooms?

What's the Policy?

Back in January 1996, then president Bill Clinton spoke to the nation in these words: "I challenge every community, every school, and every state to adopt national standards of excellence, to measure whether schools are meeting those standards and to hold them accountable for results."[4] A movement in the 1980s and 1990s to establish national standards had failed. However, many states have since developed and adopted their own sets of standards for what students should know and be able to do.

How Does It Affect Teachers?

Standards are something of an educational two-edged sword. On the one hand, standards provide clarity. Teacher and students know what they are trying to accomplish, and therefore they can focus instruction and attention on achieving those standards (for instance, "At the end of second grade, students will be able to read at X level of proficiency; at the completion of tenth grade, students will have attained Y level of mathematical proficiency").

On the other hand, the focus of instruction often narrows, not to the larger concepts behind the standards but to the tests that claim to measure the standards. Scores on these tests become the criteria for students'—and, yes, the teacher's—success or failure. Given that fact of life, teachers may tend to rely on that infamous educational methodology, teaching-to-the-test.

What Are the Pros?

Supporters of educational standards have positive goals. The "standards movement," as it is called, is driven by the desire of parents and other taxpayers to have the outstanding schools the United States needs to maintain its position in the world. Also, educators and others naturally desire to have clear targets and to know how well we are doing. Further, the standards movement has been energized by widely published reports of international studies of student achievement, studies that show American students with performance ranging from poor to mediocre.

What Are the Cons?

Philosophical disagreements seem to underlie many of the key objections to the use of standards. Standards, with their emphasis on mastering specific bodies of knowledge that experts believe students should know, appear to emanate from perennialist or essentialist concepts of education. Perhaps because of these emphases, standards seem to work against teachers committed to progressive or constructivist methods of teaching. As discussed earlier, when teachers are under pressure for their students to meet standards of achievement, creative methods such as cooperative learning and projects often go by the board. Direct instruction becomes the rule, followed by much drill and practice. This may help to accomplish high test scores, but these short-term achievements may make education dull, uninspiring, and ultimately counterproductive. In other words, a legitimate public desire for better education may be fostering quite questionable educational practice.

What Do You Think?

1. Are you in favor of national educational standards? Why or why not?
2. Can you think of some effective ways to measure students' problem-solving abilities or the development of their own sense of meaning?
3. How does your philosophy of education influence your views on academic standards?



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active learners

behaves more like a coach. Such a teacher is interested primarily in helping the child engage problems and issues, search below the surface, try out various possible solutions or explanations, and finally construct his or her own meaning. Constructivist classrooms are active places with many opportunities for discovery and experimentation, often a heavy use of collaborative learning, and teachers who are fellow learners rather than fact givers and drill masters.

Critics of constructivism claim that its qualities of student-centered and self-constructed learning have led to declines in both academic achievement and classroom discipline. If this is true, it represents a poor application of constructivist principles, which are just now making their way into our classrooms. In contrast, we believe that constructivism is the linchpin to truly learning to learn, a key component to the school reform program we turn to in Chapter 13.

Your Philosophy of Education

At this point, you may well be confused and possibly discouraged. To expect to be able to understand and evaluate critically every aspect of each philosophy is to expect of yourself what few professional philosophers are able to do. What you have just finished reading is a précis of some of the major ideas of Western civilization (see Table 10.1 for a summary). Some of these ideas have been around

for centuries, and some are the fruits of twentieth-century thinkers. Selecting the philosophy by which you will live and by which you will guide your professional activities takes much more investment of time, thought, and energy than reading our short chapter.

Some teachers, like the teacher-philosophers in this chapter, settle on one philosophical view, and that view structures all of their work. Other teachers lean strongly toward a particular philosophy, even if they may not be fully conscious of their position or be able to give it a proper philosophical label. Typically they have a particular view of the learner, of how the learner should be approached, and of what is most worth knowing.

However, few teachers are philosophical purists. Some teachers, recognizing that they draw ideas from various philosophies, label themselves *eclectics.* But what does it really mean to be an eclectic in contemporary education?

Eclecticism: Not an Excuse for Sloppy Thinking

Eclecticism embodies the idea that truth can be found anywhere and therefore people should select from various doctrines, systems, and sources. The eclectic teacher selects what he or she believes to be the most attractive features of several philosophies. For example, the teacher might take from existentialism a search for the authentic self and from essentialism a curricular viewpoint dominated by the criterion of usefulness.*

the lazy kind of eclecticism

Eclecticism is quite popular, but often for the wrong reasons. It sometimes appears as the easy way out of philosophical uncertainty, just taking what you please from the philosophical cafeteria of ideas ("Let's see now: I think I'll begin with a light salad of existential questioning of authority and follow that up with a main course of progressive problem-solving projects, but with some hearty perennialist classics as side dishes. And, oh, yes—let's finish with a popular and tasty dessert of essentialist vocational training.") One problem with this approach is the possibility of inconsistency. To take one's view of society from the existentialist, who gives primacy to individual freedom, and one's teaching methodology from the progressivist, who stresses group membership and democratic process, is liable to make everyone confused. Selecting eclecticism cannot be an excuse for lazy thinking.

eclecticism as a real teaching strategy

On the other hand, most teachers feel quite free and justified in borrowing teaching methodologies and strategies that are associated with various philosophies of education. The ardent perennialist teacher may choose to involve his or her sixth-grade students in a "hands-on" project constructing a large topographical map of Odysseus's ten years' journey to his home after the fall of Troy. Conversely, the free-spirited existentialist teacher may insist that each student memorize and be able to recite fifty lines of *The Odyssey.* Although this type of eclecticism may, in a narrow sense, seem philosophically inconsistent, at its root

*In the process of writing this chapter, we discovered that we are really traditional but progressive essentialists who are searching for a Great Books Club to join.

TABLE 10.1 Four Philosophies and Their Applications to Education

	Perennialism	Progressivism	Essentialism	Existentialism
Metaphysics: What is real? Does it have meaning?	Life has meaning in the context of the collective wisdom of Western culture.	Meaning is in the context of the individual, who is a "problem solver."	What is relevant is what helps an individual live well and what benefits humanity.	"Existence before essence." Reality is always in terms of our relationship to existence—no meaning outside ourselves.
Epistemology: Knowledge and knowing—what is truth?	Truth is changeless, revealed in classics of Western culture.	Truth must be known in the context of individual experience: Nature is ever changing—in flux. Learn how to learn.	Truth exists in the classics *and* modern science. Students must learn process *and* content.	No eternal truths. We are free to make our own meaning.
Axiology: Values, ethics, aesthetics	Changeless. Determined by the very nature of reality.	Determined by each individual in interaction with his or her culture.	Determined by the natural order of things. Values exist in the best of culture.	Determined by the individual. Stress on values clarification.
Logic: How we think, deductive and inductive	Rationality is developed by studying classics.	Emphasis is on inductive thinking and problem solving.	Western culture learned through hard work and regular exposure to essential knowledge.	The only real answers come from within.

is the recognition that no philosophy of education is able to dictate the ideal methodology or learning strategies for all situations or all students. Related to this is the growing realization (discussed in Chapter 4) that different students possess a great range of learning styles and that what works with one student may flop with another. In sum, eclecticism can be a serious philosophical position, and eclecticism in the selection of teaching strategies is quite justified. But, again, the choice to be "eclectic" should not be a substitute for thought.

Philosophy and Liberal Education

Coming to fully understand questions about the true nature of reality or the purpose of existence is a life's work. The great majority of this book's readers are in the college years, and we are not suggesting that you sit yourselves down, think

TABLE 10.1 Four Philosophies and Their Applications to Education *(cont'd)*

	Perennialism	Progressivism	Essentialism	Existentialism
The teacher	Passes on to next generation the accumulated wisdom of the past.	Develops problem-solving abilities. School is a small democracy. Helps children do what they want to do.	Teaches essential knowledge. School is where children come to learn what they need to know. Task oriented.	Helps the child confront his or her freedom. Stresses freedom and the responsibility to choose.
Teaching strategies	Cultivates rational powers through contact with the culture's best and through imitation.	Stimulates students to plan and carry out activities and research projects using group processes and democratic procedures. Teacher is facilitator and resource.	Avoids methodological frills and soft pedagogy and concentrates on sound, proven instructional methods. Teacher is expert.	Promotes freedom and responsibility. Teacher attempts to create a learning environment for students' self-definition.
The child	Is there to learn what is taught.	Is naturally good. Learns by doing and by discovering.	Is there to listen and learn.	Is alone and must make own meaning.
Curriculum	Based on materials reflecting universal and recurring themes that cultivate rationality.	Centered on students' interest in real problems and interdisciplinary solution seeking.	Strong emphasis on basic skills in elementary schools and on disciplined knowledge and scholastic achievement in secondary schools.	Subject matter, particularly liberal education, is a foundation for gaining personal freedom. Emphasizes humanities and the arts while de-emphasizing science.

Source: Adapted from a table suggested by James Hotchkiss. Used by permission of James Hotchkiss.

through all these issues, and come up with a tight set of philosophical answers that will last a lifetime. Rather, we hope that we have focused—or refocused—your attention on some of life's most critical questions and on some issues that are at the very core of teaching. In fact, the college years have always been considered a time of questioning and a time of testing the ideas that have been largely imposed on young people by their education and cultural milieu. The college years should be a time when the questions "What is a good life?" and "How do I live it?" are a major focus.

One purpose of the general education component of teacher education programs (that is, the courses in the arts and sciences required of the prospective

Identifying Your Own Philosophical Leanings

Think of your favorite teacher from elementary or secondary school, or a teacher you have admired during your teacher education. In the left-hand column below, or on a separate piece of paper, list some of that teacher's practices that you admire most. Include instructional techniques, classroom management strategies, ways of relating to the students—anything you think helped that person be an effective teacher.

Now, in the right-hand column, write the philosophical outlook that you think may have underlain each practice you admired. This will take some reflection, and you may well find that no single philosophy matches all the teaching characteristics you listed. Use whatever philosophical labels seem most appropriate.

After completing both columns, what general conclusions can you draw about the philosophy of this teacher you admire? Does your teacher reflect the tenets of a single educational philosophy discussed in this chapter? Or does she or he take an eclectic approach, drawing on different philosophical traditions? Are there ways in which this teacher is too unique to fit any category?

As a final step, reflect on what this tells you about your own philosophical leanings. If you hold this teacher in high regard, presumably you share at least some of his or her philosophical convictions. Is there anything that surprises you about the philosophical beliefs you have deduced? Do they suggest that you are more traditional or more progressive than you supposed? More child centered or subject matter centered? More nicely balanced, or just more muddled? What aspects of your own philosophical base do you need to think about further and clarify?

opportunities to develop your philosophy

teacher) is to provide a chance for future teachers to think through these fundamental questions of human existence. A primary purpose of the college curriculum is to present the student with a spectrum of society's best thinkers and their attempts to understand their own existence. On the other hand, the infamous college bull sessions may be where the real philosophical inquiry goes on; they are frequently thinly veiled discussions of what really counts in life and what one should try to do with one's life. In effect, then, both the formal apparatus of college and its curriculum and the informal opportunities to meet, talk, and test your ideas with a variety of people should help you discover where you stand on some of these essential human questions.

A Final Word

As we said at the beginning of this chapter, the teacher who will be more than a technician has a special obligation to take philosophical issues and questions seriously. Teachers owe it to themselves and to their students to understand where they are going and why they are going there. On the other hand, teachers owe it to themselves to make sure that the schools they work in are hospitable—and certainly not hostile—to their own philosophies of education. It is important, therefore, that you be ready both to discuss your own philosophy of education with prospective employers and to inquire about the district's or school's philosophy. However, do not expect those interviewing you to be able to define their schools precisely according to the particular philosophies described in this chapter. Although educators live out a philosophy of education, we are not always able to capture it in words.

Education makes people easy to lead, but difficult to drive; easy to govern, but impossible to enslave.

—HENRY BROOKS ADAMS

KEY TERMS

philosophy (323)
metaphysics (325)
epistemology (326)
axiology (327)
ethics (328)
aesthetics (328)
logic (328)
deductive reasoning (328)
inductive reasoning (329)
perennialism (330)
progressivism (336)
essentialism (340)
existentialism (342)
behaviorism (345)
constructivism (346)

FOR REFLECTION

1. At the present time, where are you in your own evolution or development of a philosophy of education? At the beginning of the quest? Just tying up some loose details?
2. What role, if any, does religion play in your philosophy of education?
3. Why do superintendents and principals often ask teaching candidates about their philosophy of education?
4. With which of the four branches of philosophy mentioned in this chapter—metaphysics, epistemology, axiology, or logic—do you feel most at home? What do you believe are the implications of this philosophy for your own teaching?
5. At this point, which of the philosophies of education—perennialism, progressivism, essentialism, or existentialism—appeals to you most? Why? What do you see as the most telling argument against this philosophy of education?

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION



American Philosophical Association (APA). Web site at http://www.oxy.edu/apa/apa.html.
This excellent web site provides basic information and reference material on many branches and schools of philosophy.

Fenstermacher, Gary D., and Jonas F. Soltis. *Approaches to Teaching.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1986.
This slim volume shows how two philosophers can unpack the term *teaching* and explain what is behind several different approaches to instruction.

Gaarder, Jostein. *Sophie's World: A Novel About the History of Philosophy.* New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1994.
This interesting and innovative book is an excellent introduction to philosophy and the history of ideas. The writer is clearly a marvelous teacher, plus a most engaging writer.

Gutek, Gerald L. *Historical and Philosophical Foundations of Education: A Biographical Introduction.* 2d ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall/Merrill, 1997.
This textbook is a comprehensive and up-to-date account of the competing schools of educational philosophy and their application to schooling. It provides thumbnail sketches of key figures and leads the reader in investigating their thought.

11

What Is the History of American Education?

CHAPTER PREVIEW

American schooling and education did not develop into our current system overnight. The system as we know it has its roots in the social, economic, political, and religious history of the nation. To understand our present educational system, its successes and failures, and the problems it still faces, we must look to our past. There we can identify the forces that have affected and continue to affect the development of American education. This chapter reviews the history of schooling and education in the United States, pointing out six important themes and examining the contributions that significant men and women have made.

This chapter emphasizes that

- Education in colonial America was originally religious in orientation but differed in form according to geographical area. Schooling in colonial America was not universal; it was primarily for white males.
- During the nineteenth century, influenced by the ideas of Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin and led by such reformers as Horace Mann, free public education became a reality. Common schools at the elementary level were tax supported and open to all children; the purpose was to cultivate a sense of American identity and loyalty.
- The nineteenth century also saw the development of public high schools that were designed to prepare young people, within a single institution, for either vocations or college; this goal of providing comprehensive educational opportunities was unique to American education.
- Private education has always played an important role in America, particularly in our nation's early days. Even today, about 11 percent of elementary and secondary school–age children attend private schools. Many private schools have a religious affiliation and thus offer alternatives to the public schools' secular emphasis.

- Equal educational opportunities for minorities and women have not always existed in America. Ethnic groups such as African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans, as well as women, have had to fight uphill battles to gain educational rights and treatment equal to those given to white males.

why study educational history?

Rare is the college student who feels a burning urgency to answer the question "What is the history of American education?" Unless you are a history buff, you will probably ask yourself, "Why do I need to know this stuff? How will it help me do a better job in the classroom?" In truth, knowing something about the history of American education probably will not directly affect your classroom practices. So why should you study this aspect of education?

First, understanding American educational history will give you a sense of perspective. As educators, we are sometimes accused of being faddist, which implies that we blindly follow each new approach or idea, thinking it is the greatest thing since sliced bread. On the other hand, we are sometimes accused of reinventing the wheel, spending a great deal of energy discovering something that has been in the educational literature for years or was a significant part of the education program of a different culture.

Second, although studying the history of American education will not give you answers to the immediate problems you are likely to face in your classes, it will enable you to better understand the culture and context in which you will work. It will help you obtain the "big picture" of why things operate as they do in today's schools.

Finally, studying the history of education will help you appreciate its truly noble heritage. Schools have been a progressive instrument in the lives of most people who have attended them. They have freed people from superstition and false information and have given them new skills, positive values, and world-expanding visions of what each individual, as well as what we as a people, can become. Some of the greatest people who have walked the earth—Socrates, Jesus, Gandhi, among others—saw themselves essentially as teachers. Teachers, then, are part of an old, progressive, and inspirational human endeavor. Knowing our educational history and gaining a historical perspective will help you live up to and extend this tradition.

Themes in American Education

Reading this book, surrounded by college classmates and friends, may seem a natural step in your educational career. Kindergarten or nursery school led to elementary school, then to middle school or junior high school, then to high

school, and now college. You may have taken this progression for granted, assuming that's the way things have always been.

Actually, you are enjoying a level of education that was available only to the elite of earlier generations. You are already close to the top of an educational pyramid for which the foundation was laid almost 350 years ago. The growth of the pyramid has been shaped and energized by six major themes in American educational history:

six major themes

1. *Local control.* Originating in New England during colonial times, the concept of local control of schools spread during the nineteenth century with the common school district system. Because of a fear of a strong federal government, the framers of the United States Constitution made no reference to education. As a result, state governments assumed the role of educational authorities and then delegated substantial powers to local school boards. Not until the mid-twentieth century did the federal government really become involved in educational matters.

2. *Universal education.* Education for all children has been a developing theme in American education. In the colonial period, education was reserved for a small minority, mainly white males. During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, children from various groups previously omitted from educational opportunity (girls, minorities, immigrants, people with disabilities) gained access to elementary and secondary education. Today a college education is generally available to all who actively seek it.

3. *Public education.* In the colonial period, education was generally private and primarily for the middle and upper classes. Nationhood brought not only the spread of publicly supported education but, by the early twentieth century, compulsory education as well. Nevertheless, private education remains a small but important part of the overall educational system.

4. *Comprehensive education.* The basic abilities to read, write, and do arithmetic were once sufficient to prepare most children for their adult roles in society. However, the growth of urban, industrial life in America during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries also demanded that people be educated for work. The result was the comprehensive public high school, which includes both training for trades and preparation for college.

5. *Secular education.* In earliest colonial times, the purpose of education was religious training. Beginning in the eighteenth century and progressing through the twentieth, the function of American education became increasingly secular, concerned with producing socially responsible citizens. Religious study has remained mainly in the private sector.

6. *Changing ideas of the basics.* Literacy and classical learning were the main goals of colonial education, whereas practical skills for a pragmatic, democratic society were the aims of the nineteenth-century schools. Technical and scientific literacy became the basics in the computer- and space-age late twentieth century.

contemporary issues

Many contemporary educational issues have their roots in these six themes, which continue to shape the character of American schooling and education. Consider these examples of current issues:

- *Local control.* What should be the role of the federal government regarding education? Should national goals, standards, curriculum, and assessment for elementary and secondary schools be implemented?
- *Universal education.* How can we ensure the quality of education regardless of whether students live in wealthy or poor school districts?
- *Public education.* Should private schools receive public tax support via school vouchers?
- *Comprehensive education.* Should the schools require all students, vocational and college prep, to follow a common curriculum?
- *Secular education.* How should public schools treat the fact of religion in American society and world culture?
- *Changing ideas of the basics.* Is computer literacy a new "basic" of education, and, if so, how will schools finance programs that train students to use computers?

These are just a few of the issues facing today's policymakers. As you read the rest of this chapter, look for links between historical forces and the key topics and debates in contemporary education. This chapter's tour through history is not a dead-end journey into the past. What happened in earlier generations has had a great impact on the schooling you received and the system you will enter as a teacher.

Elementary Education

Colonial Origins

In the 1600s, some girls received elementary instruction, but formal colonial education was mainly for boys, particularly those of the middle and upper classes. Both girls and boys might have had some preliminary training in the *four Rs*—reading, 'riting, 'rithmetic, and religion—at home. Sometimes, for a small fee, a housewife offered to take in children, to whom she would teach a little reading and writing, basic prayers, and religious beliefs. In these **dame schools,** girls also learned some basic household skills, such as cooking and sewing. The dame schools often provided all the formal education some children, especially girls, ever received.

dame schools

apprenticeships

Throughout the colonies, poor children were often apprenticed or indentured to local tradesmen or housewives. Apprenticeships lasted three to ten years, generally ending around age twenty-one for boys and eighteen for girls. During that

time, an apprentice would learn the basic skills of a trade and might also be taught basic reading and writing, and perhaps arithmetic, as part of the contractual agreement.

Although the lines were not drawn hard and fast, the three geographic regions of the colonies developed different types of educational systems, which were shaped by each region's particular settlement patterns. New England colonists emphasized community-controlled, religiously oriented schools. Settlers in the South tended toward private education and tutors, with community schools seldom getting much support. The Middle Colonies saw the development of private venture and denominational schools.

New England Town and District Schools In New England, the Puritans believed it was important that everyone be able to read the Bible and interpret its teachings. As early as 1642, Massachusetts passed a law requiring parents to educate their children. That law was strengthened in 1647 by the famous **Old Deluder Satan Act.** Because Satan assuredly would try to keep people from understanding the Scriptures, it was important that all children be taught how to read. Therefore, every town of fifty or more families was obligated to pay a man to teach reading and writing. With these schools, known as **town schools,** New England set the precedent that if parents would not or could not educate their children, the government was obligated to take on that responsibility.

Old Deluder Satan Act

town schools

When settlers spread out, seeking better farmland, the town schools began to disappear. What emerged in their place was the so-called *moving school,* a schoolmaster who traveled from village to village, holding sessions in each place for several months before moving on. One can imagine how much actual learning occurred under such circumstances!

moving schools

Discontent with this system of education led to the development of the **district school.** By this scheme, a township was divided into districts, each having its own school and master and funded by the town treasury. The theme of local control of schooling developed in these various kinds of schools. The district school system soon entrenched itself in New England, since it was inexpensive to finance and gave some measure of schooling to every child. Laws made attendance compulsory, but they were not very strongly enforced.

district schools

Some towns allowed girls to have one or two hours of instruction between 5:00 and 7:00 A.M., when boys were not using the school building. For the most part, however, girls had no access to the town elementary schools until after the American Revolution,[1] and if few girls went to school in the towns, even fewer did so in the outlying districts. The theme of universal education, which would include girls, was not to develop until the next century.

The town and district schools were unlike today's schools in many respects. The schools were usually crude, one-room buildings housing twenty or thirty students. The interiors typically were colorless and cold. Heating was such a problem that students usually had to provide firewood.

Students entered school around age six or seven and stayed in school for only three or four years. They learned their ABCs, numerals, and the Lord's Prayer from a *hornbook,* which consisted of a page that was laminated with a transpar-

New England Primer

ent material made from boiled-down cows' horns and then attached to a flat piece of wood. Having learned the basics, students graduated to the ***New England Primer,*** an illustrated book composed of religious texts and other readings. Although there were other primers and catechisms, the *New England Primer* was the most famous and remained the basic school text for at least one hundred years after the first edition of 1690.

dreary atmosphere

The learning atmosphere was repressive and grim. Students were under orders to keep quiet and do their work, and learning was characterized by an emphasis on memorization. Group instruction was almost unheard of; each child worked independently, one on ABCs, another on spelling, and another on the catechism. Class recitation was nonexistent. Instead, the master, sitting on a pulpit at the front of the room, called students up to recite to him one at a time.

Foolishness is bound up on the heart of the child; but the rod of correction shall drive it from him.

—NEW ENGLAND PRIMER

If students did well, they were praised and given a new task. If they did poorly, they were criticized harshly and often given a rap across the knuckles or on the seat of the pants. It was believed that if children did not pay attention, that was simply a sign of how easily the devil could distract them from the path of righteousness. Such views continued to serve as a justification for severe classroom discipline throughout the first 250 years of American history.

Education in the South Conditions in the South were quite different from those in New England. Many upper-class Englishmen emigrated to the South, where they established large estates. As opposed to the more centralized conditions in New England, the great distances between southern settlements encouraged plantation owners to educate their children with private tutors, who were often local ministers or itinerant scholars. In addition, most southern settlers were members of the Anglican church and did not share the Puritan belief that everyone had a religious obligation to learn to read.

private tutors

In the towns of the South, schools were established by governmental authority, but their administration was usually delegated to a group or corporation, which could collect tuition, own property, hire and fire teachers, and decide curriculum content. As in England, education of the poor and orphans was often undertaken by the Anglican church or by religious groups such as the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. The lack of concern for general education of the entire community caused public education in the South to lag behind that in other sections of the country for many generations.

Education in the Middle Colonies Unlike Puritan New England and the Anglican Southern Colonies, the Middle Colonies were composed of various religious and ethnic groups. Quakers, Catholics, Mennonites, Huguenots, Baptists, and others each wished to train their children in their respective faiths; Dutch, German, and Swedish settlers also wanted a separate education for their children. As a result, **private venture schools,** which were licensed by the civil government but not protected or financed by it, flourished, and the use of public funds to educate everyone's children did not become customary.

private venture schools

In these private schools, parents paid the teacher directly on a contractual basis. The instructor managed the school and curriculum, accepting or rejecting students as desired. The denominational schools in the Middle Colonies shared the New England concern for proper religious training as a primary goal, but they also began early to offer, in addition to the basics, practical subjects such as bookkeeping or navigation.

The Common School

emerging idea of common school

Before the American Revolution, the term **common school** referred to schools that provided education for the average person, but it was not necessarily at public expense or available to all. The Revolution brought a new ideal of the common school that, like the Revolution itself, was nevertheless rooted in the colonial period. The early New England laws had already set the precedent that all children should be taught how to read and that the civil government had authority over education. This implied a communal obligation to provide **universal education,** that is, schooling for everyone.

Even in colonial New England, it was the students' parents who had to pay for the schooling. In the first blush of the new republic, however, conditions began to favor the idea that some sort of elementary education should be provided free, at public expense and under public control, for everyone who could not afford or did not want private schooling. Even though the Constitution had relegated control of education to the states, the impetus for such public schooling came from the federal government, in particular as a result of the enactment of the **Northwest Ordinances** of 1785 and 1787. Concerned with the sale of public lands in the Northwest Territory (from present-day Ohio to Minnesota), Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance of 1785. Every township was divided into thirty-six sections, of which one was set aside for the maintenance of public schools. In the Ordinance of 1787, Congress reaffirmed that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."[2]

Northwest Ordinances

Arguments for the Common School After the American Revolution, it was recognized that a democratic government would be only as strong as the people's ability to make intelligent choices, which in turn depended on a basic education for all. It was also argued that education was a natural right, just like the very rights for which the Revolution had been fought. During this period, Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson suggested educational plans, as did other leaders of the Revolution.

If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and will never be.

—THOMAS JEFFERSON

The early period of independence saw an increased concern with citizenship and nationhood. The War of 1812, coming so soon after the Revolution, impressed on Americans the idea that their separate regional backgrounds had to be put aside if the new nation was to remain united and free. A system of common schooling would strengthen unity. Similarly, an influx of immigrants in the 1840s and 1850s, following a period of upheaval in Europe, further stimulated demand for an educational

Noah Webster *(1758–1843)*

Although best remembered today for his *American Dictionary of the English Language,* first published in 1828, Noah Webster was best known in the nineteenth century for his *American Spelling Book* (also known as the *Blue-Backed Speller*). This small, blue-backed booklet appeared in 1783 and became the most widely used schoolbook during the early nineteenth century.

A native of Connecticut and a graduate of Yale University, Webster was a lawyer, schoolmaster, politician, and writer. His intellectual interests were extremely broad. He wrote a paper on epidemic and pestilential diseases, edited John Wingate's historical journal, wrote several scientific treatises, discoursed on banking and insurance, and, along the way, mastered twenty-six languages, including Sanskrit!

An intensely patriotic individual, Webster believed that America had to shed its British influence and develop its own sense of cultural identity and unity. The best way to do this, he believed, was to reshape English language and literature to reflect the unique American culture. The creation of an American language would bind the people together and help produce a strong sense of nationalism. His dictionary contained the first-time appearance of such American words as *plantation, hickory, presidential,* and *pecan.*

Webster knew that if Americans were to develop a sense of national identity and pride, the process should start at an early age. Accordingly, he wrote his blue-backed *American Spelling Book,* one of the most successful books ever written. Roughly 100 million copies were printed, and it is estimated that more than a billion readers used the book—a record surpassed only by the Bible. The *American Spelling Book* was often the only book schoolchildren had, since it served as a combination primer, reader, and speller. The book contained many moral stories and lessons, as well as word lists and guides to pronunciation. Webster must be credited with the fact that Americans differ from the British in writing *color* instead of *colour* and *center* instead of *centre.* Not only did he set the style for American spelling, but he made it the liveliest subject in the classroom. Spelling bees and other spelling games brightened up otherwise typically dull instruction.

Known as the "schoolmaster of the republic," Noah Webster campaigned for free schools for both boys and girls in which children could learn the virtues of liberty, just laws, patriotism, hard work, and morality. He was an educational statesman whose work, more than anyone else's, helped to create a sense of American language and national culture.

system that would serve to "Americanize" the waves of foreigners and keep society stable.

In contrast to European social structure, class membership in America was rather fluid: wealth and social status in this country depended less on the social class into which a person was born. Universal education, one of the key themes of American education, was thus seen by the newly evolving working class as a means of equalizing economic and social opportunities. As a result, another reason given for spreading educational opportunity was that better-educated people would increase productivity and enhance everyone's prosperity while diminishing crime and reducing poverty.

Whereas the *New England Primer* reflected the religious orientation of much colonial education, the textbooks of the nineteenth century began a trend toward secular education (another of the six major themes in the history of American education), emphasizing morality and Americanism. No other book was more popular than the six-volume series of ***McGuffey Readers,*** which sold more than 100 million copies between 1836 and 1906. Besides training students in (American) English language and grammar, these texts introduced poetry and the writings of statesmen, politicians, moralists, and religious leaders. "They assumed the Fatherhood of God, the brotherhood of man, the wickedness of war, crime, and inhumanity, and above all, they buttressed the concept of the sacredness of property and bulwarked the position of the middle class in society."[3]

McGuffey Readers

The ladder was there, "from the gutter to the university," and for those stalwart enough to ascend it, the schools were a boon and a path out of poverty.

—DIANE RAVITCH

Although at this time universal education was meant only for whites, the same arguments advanced by its advocates were used later to extend universal education to include racial and ethnic minorities and children with disabilities, to name just a few groups that have been denied equal educational opportunities. The desegregation efforts of the 1950s and 1960s were based on these very arguments. (For further discussion of the issue of equal educational opportunity, see pages 155–159 in Chapter 5.)

Arguments Against the Common School As proper as these thoughts may sound to the modern ear, they often encountered opposition. The arguments against the public common school were based on economics as much as on educational or political principles: why should one family pay for the education of another's children? Many people believed that schooling, especially for the poor, should be the responsibility of religious groups. Still others thought that a free public school would gradually weaken or dilute the particular culture or religion that they had sought to establish in America. If ethnic groups mingled together, what would be the fate of each group's native culture and language? Similar concerns are reflected in the current controversies about multicultural and bilingual education, discussed in Chapter 4.

who pays for universal education?

And what was to be done about religious study? The ability of different religious groups to exist together in one school, as in democracy itself, demanded that no one religious group be favored over another. Although there were many competing proposals, the common schools finally settled on the teaching of basic moral values, such as honesty and sincerity, as a substitute for direct religious instruction. Today the same issues remain with us.

what about religious study?

Victory of the Common School Between 1820 and 1920, the establishment of common schools made steady progress around the country. By the middle of the nineteenth century and certainly by the end of the Civil War, thanks in large part to the efforts of Horace Mann and other common school advocates, the ideal of universal elementary education was generally acknowledged, if not universally practiced. By 1930, eleven states and the District of Columbia had passed compulsory attendance laws in addition to making common schools generally available.

The Common School is the greatest discovery ever made by man.

—HORACE MANN

Horace Mann *(1796–1859)*

Horace Mann was the radical educational reformer of his day. Though trained as a lawyer, he became eminently successful as an educator and a politician. Asked why he had exchanged the practice of law for education, he answered that "the interests of a client are small compared with the interests of the next generation."

Born in Franklin, Massachusetts, Mann received only the most rudimentary schooling until he was fifteen. Most of his education was self-acquired, a fact that profoundly influenced his philosophy of education. He studied hard to be admitted to Brown University, where he became a brilliant student. In 1827, Mann was elected to the Massachusetts House of Representatives, and a luminous political career lay ahead of him, but he became committed instead to education and to the use of political methods to bring about educational reform.

Mann made it his aim to abolish the cruel floggings that were then routine in the public schools. Schoolmasters believed it their duty to drive the "devil" out of their students, and many schools administered from ten to twenty floggings a day. Most schoolkeepers believed flogging to be an aid to learning. Not only were students treated cruelly, but attendance at school was itself a punishment. Schools were often little better than hovels: the lighting was poor, and many buildings were unsanitary and unsafe. Mann criticized corporal punishment and inadequate facilities in public speeches, lectures, and letters, and lobbied for reform in the state legislature and in Congress.

Horace Mann strongly believed in the ideals of the common school and championed its cause throughout his career. He saw education as a tool of liberation by which the poor could raise themselves, African Americans could become emancipated, and children with disabilities could adjust to their handicaps. After all, Mann reasoned, education had brought him fame and position. Thus, over 150 years ago, the idea of social mobility through education was born in America.

For education to be as powerful a force as Mann envisioned it, he thought the school term must be lengthened and teachers' salaries raised. To make learning more relevant and enjoyable, he helped introduce new textbooks designed to illustrate the relationship between knowledge and the practical problems of society. Mann organized libraries in many schools, making books readily available to students. He believed less in the formal curriculum than in individual learning—undoubtedly because of his own self-education.

Mann was responsible for the establishment of the Massachusetts Board of Education and for the founding in 1839 of the first public *normal school* (a two-year school chiefly for the training of elementary teachers) in Lexington, Massachusetts. Although the normal school opened with only three students, the concept spread and was widely imitated throughout the country. Mann was intensely interested in teacher training, and he believed teachers should be intellectual, moral, and cultural models for their communities.

Many of Mann's ideas were controversial, but he was most violently denounced for his position on religion in the schools. Though a religious man, he believed religious training belonged outside the schools, which should be run by the state. Because of his views, Mann was attacked from many Boston pulpits.

Mann was regarded as a dreamer and a visionary by many of his colleagues. When he took over the presidency of Antioch College in 1852, opened its doors to all races and religious sects, and admitted women on an equal basis with men, some educators predicted that these measures would promote the collapse of higher education. Were he alive today, Mann might still be fighting for ideas he espoused more than a century ago. Many people have yet to accept these ideas.

As a result, between the Civil War and World War I, the number of students in schools grew enormously. In 1870, 57 percent of children between five and eighteen years old were enrolled in some form of schooling. By 1918, more than 75 percent of that age range were enrolled.[4] In 1870, average attendance was forty-five days a year; in 1918, it was more than ninety days. Thus, the hundred years between 1820 and 1920 saw extraordinary growth in the commitment to free, publicly supported, universal education. (See Table 11.1 for a summary of the different types of elementary schooling during our history.)

public school enrollment burgeons

Other Developments in Elementary Education

European Influences From Europe came new ideas about education. One of the most far-reaching experiments was the **kindergarten** ("children's garden"), where pleasant children's activities, such as songs and stories, were used to lay a foundation before formal education began. Friedrich Froebel of Germany developed the first kindergarten in 1837. In the kindergarten, play helped children express themselves to develop their unique physical, spiritual, emotional, and intellectual selves. The first American experiments were actually made before the Civil War, but in 1873 a public school kindergarten was established in St. Louis, and the idea spread rapidly. Elizabeth Peabody brought Froebel's ideas to the United States and was influential in instituting early childhood education in our country.

Froebel's kindergartens

European influence also resulted in greater emphasis on the interests of the child in elementary education (see Table 11.2). Johann Pestalozzi modeled his educational doctrines in a Swiss experimental school at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Pestalozzi attempted to educate the heads, hearts, and hands of his pupils, relying on attitudes of acceptance and love of the individual student to reach large numbers of poor and handicapped children. Among his instructional techniques were *object lessons,* lessons that focused on actual objects and pictures. He also emphasized learning through sense perceptions and sequencing of learning experiences from the known to the unknown.

Pestalozzi

German educator Johann Friedrich Herbart, influenced by Pestalozzi's thinking, stressed that the primary purpose of education was moral development. For Herbart, the goal of education was to develop cultured human beings guided by the highest ethical principles. Herbart also established a highly structured mode of teaching, thus creating a methodology of teaching that strongly influenced American teachers during the early part of the twentieth century.

Herbart

European thinkers, and American educators influenced by them, believed students could learn best by direct experience, by using their senses and relating new learning to their previous knowledge. As a result, some schools incorporated a lot of physical activity and manual training in their curricula. This innovation was designed not to train technical workers but to complement and round out traditional intellectual instruction. Maria Montessori (profiled in Chapter 5) was particularly influential in developing a curriculum that emphasized learning through the senses for young children.

Montessori

TABLE 11.1 Types of Elementary Schooling

Type of School	Location	Time Period	Purpose
Dame school	Most of the colonies	Seventeenth century	Private school held in housewife's home; taught basic reading, spelling, and religious doctrines
Town school	New England	Seventeenth and part of eighteenth century	Locally controlled institution, public but not free; simple curriculum of reading, writing, catechism, and arithmetic
Moving school	New England	Eighteenth century	Provided schooling for communities spread out over wide areas; an itinerant teacher moved from village to village
District school	Primarily New England	Mid-eighteenth to mid-nineteenth century	Replaced town and moving schools; public but not free; each district hired its own schoolmaster, again with emphasis on basic skills
Private tutoring	Primarily the South	Seventeenth to early nineteenth century	For children of wealthy
Private venture school	Primarily Middle Colonies, but widespread	Eighteenth and nineteenth centuries	Private schools, offering whatever subjects the schoolmaster chose and parents wanted for their children
Common school	New England, Middle Colonies, and the South at first; now universal	1830 to present	Provided free, public, locally controlled elementary schooling; curriculum emphasized basic skills, moral education, and citizenship
Kindergarten	Widespread	1855 to present	Emphasized play and constructive activities as preparation for elementary school

The thoughts of Froebel, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Montessori, among others, entered American education through their influence on issues of curriculum and instruction. The emphasis on the child's interest and experience, advocated by the progressive educators (described in this chapter and in Chapter 10) and still strong in American elementary education, owes much to these European thinkers.

Curriculum Changes During the colonial period, it was hardly necessary for one to know anything beyond the four Rs unless one was wealthy and wanted to go on to college. In the early and mid-nineteenth century, the common school curriculum simply expanded on the traditional curriculum. The primary concern was less with religious training and more with obtaining functional knowledge for life after school. Subjects such as spelling, geography, history, and government were added because they were considered important for good citizenship. Natural science, physical training, and mechanical drawing were also included to provide a complete, well-rounded education. The movement toward comprehensive education is one of the key themes of the history of American education.

less religious training

Consolidation The growth of school enrollments, especially outside the cities, would not have been possible without the consolidation of smaller school districts into larger, unified systems. Although the one-room school had served well in the days of the frontier, as areas developed it became clear that the smaller, poorer districts could not provide the educational opportunities available in larger, wealthier ones. In 1910, more than half the states allowed such unification. By the 1920s, the growth of industry and the invention of the automobile (and the school bus) had helped consolidate the large number of one-room schools around the country into centrally located, modern facilities that could serve larger areas better than the old district schools.

merging of districts

The Progressive Education Association John Dewey (who is discussed more fully in Chapter 10) and other educators tried to create new, experimental, child-centered schools in the early 1900s. In 1919, the establishment of the Progressive Education Association was a formalized attempt to reform education according to the following principles:

progressive principles

1. The child should have freedom to develop naturally.
2. Natural interest is the best motive for work.
3. The teacher is a guide, not a taskmaster.
4. A student's development must be measured scientifically, not just by grades.
5. Students' general health and physical development require attention.
6. The school and the home must work together to meet children's needs.
7. The progressive school should be a leader in trying new educational ideas.[5]

TABLE 11.2 Major European Educational Thinkers

Name	Dates	Major Contributions
John Comenius (Czech)	1592–1670	Emphasized sensory experience in learning Materials and instruction should be based on developmental stages of child growth Developed textbooks that were among the first to contain illustrations Stressed that schools should be joyful and pleasant places
John Locke (English)	1632–1704	Believed we acquire knowledge of world through our senses Pioneer of the inductive, or scientific, method Recommended utilitarian and practical learning in a slow, gradual process
Johann Pestalozzi (Swiss)	1747–1827	Stressed the importance of children learning through their senses and concrete situations Advocated love and unconditional acceptance of children; schools should be like warm and loving homes
Johann Herbart (German)	1776–1841	Believed the chief aim of education was moral development Developed the concept of curriculum correlation—each subject should be taught so it relates to other subjects Believed history, geography, and literature were core subjects Developed Herbartian method of instruction: (1) preparation; (2) presentation; (3) association; (4) systematization; and (5) application
Friedrich Froebel (German)	1782–1852	Introduced the kindergarten, or "child's garden," whose goal was the cultivation of the child's self-development, self-activity, and socialization Believed the teacher should be a model of human dignity and cultural values Songs, stories, and games stimulated the child's imagination and transmitted the culture
Maria Montessori (Italian)	1870–1952	Established preschools run on the principle of allowing children freedom within a carefully designed environment Curriculum focused on three types of experiences: practical, sensory, and formal studies Created learning materials designed to develop sensory and muscular coordination Required considerable training of teachers to implement the structured curriculum

The progressive school movement eventually went in several different directions. Some educators argued for letting children be free to do whatever they wanted; others tried to make the school into a community center for recreation, adult education, and even social reform. Critics ranged from traditionalist advocates of the subject-centered curriculum to some progressives, like Dewey himself, who argued that the ties between society and the child would be broken if children were granted total freedom to do whatever they wanted.

The 1940s brought a rather conservative reaction to the progressivism of the previous generation. However, it is good to remember that many ideas we take for granted now—such as teaching through student projects, fieldtrips, and nonlecture methods of instruction—were hotly debated innovations that were introduced by progressive educators.

influence of progressives

Since World War II After World War II, the role of the United States in world affairs increased tremendously, thus broadening the scope of educational objectives. The use of the single textbook was supplemented by a great variety of learning resources. Other major developments in elementary education included the rapid increase in kindergartens and an emphasis on providing special educational programs for children with disabilities. Between 1948 and 1953, the number of schools offering special education services increased by 83 percent, and enrollments in kindergartens in public schools increased from 595,000 in 1939–40 to 1,474,000 in 1953–54.[6]

special education receives attention

During the 1950s and 1960s, with the stimulus of the Soviet launching of the space satellite *Sputnik,* a number of national curriculum projects were developed and implemented in the elementary schools, particularly in mathematics, science, and social studies.

new curriculum projects

Also during this period, two types of students received major attention from elementary school educators: the gifted and the disadvantaged. Gifted students received attention because of our nation's concern over the Cold War with the Soviet Union and our perceived need to produce scientific breakthroughs to ensure our military superiority over the Soviets. As the movement for civil and human rights gained momentum, more and more curriculum reform movements also focused on the "culturally disadvantaged" child. In response to judicial decisions and to protests by minority groups, the federal government advanced significant financial aid to change schools to better address the needs of these children. Compensatory education programs, such as Head Start and Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, improved the learning of disadvantaged children. (See Chapter 9 for more details on compensatory education programs.)

education of gifted and disadvantaged

As achievement test and SAT test scores declined during the 1970s, many parents, politicians, and educators argued that the schools had tried to accomplish too much and had lost sight of their basic purposes. A return to the basics seemed to be the cry of the late 1970s and early 1980s. Today academic rigor continues to be emphasized, but more programs have been developed to meet the needs of students who are at risk for dropping out.

back to the basics

Although a public elementary school education is now available universally, the issues of what constitutes a proper education—how comprehensive it should be,

how secular it should remain, and how basic learning should be defined—are far from resolved. The changing nature of what constitutes the basics of education has been another one of the key themes of the history of American education.

Secondary Education

four types of secondary institutions

In the history of American secondary education, there have been four major institutions. The first type of secondary school, prevalent in the early colonial period, was the *Latin grammar school,* whose main purpose was to prepare students for college. The *English grammar school,* established in the latter half of the colonial period, was intended to provide a practical alternative education for students who were not interested in college. The third type of school, which flowered in the early national period, was the *academy.* Although its major purpose was to combine the best of both types of grammar schools, the academy gradually took on a college-oriented direction in the nineteenth century. Finally, evolving naturally from the elementary common school, the *public comprehensive high school* became the predominant form of secondary education in America in the twentieth century. A uniquely American institution, the comprehensive high school provides, within a single institution, both preparation for college and a vocational education for students not going on to college. Table 11.3 summarizes these four types of secondary school, together with the modern junior high and middle school.

Early Forms

Latin Grammar Schools In the colonial period, all secondary education (that is, all education beyond the elementary level) served the sole purpose of training for entrance to college. The earliest secondary institution was the **Latin grammar school,** whose name gradually came to mean "college preparatory school." The term *prep school* still carries that classical connotation today.

emphasis on classical education

A boy entered a Latin grammar school around age seven or eight and spent the next seven years learning Latin texts written by ancient Romans or medieval scholars. Much work was memorized, and over three or four years the student learned composition and writing of Latin verses. Following this, the student studied Greek, moving in the final year to classical Greek writers and the New Testament. He also might have given some attention to the study of the Hebrew language.

The first Latin grammar school in the colonies is generally considered to have been established in 1635 in Boston. It was public, open to boys of all social classes. The Old Deluder Satan Act of 1647, which required communities of fifty or more families to establish elementary schools, also required communities of one hundred or more families to establish Latin schools. At first, Latin grammar schools were found primarily in New England; a bit later they were instituted in the Middle Colonies. Wealthy families in the South generally either hired tutors or sent their sons back to England for college preparation.

TABLE 11.3 Types of Secondary Schooling

Type of School	Location	Time Period	Purpose
Latin grammar schools	New England, Middle Colonies; a few in the South	Seventeenth and eighteenth centuries	Emphasized Latin and classical studies; designed to prepare young men for college
English grammar schools	Middle Colonies, New England; a few in the South	Eighteenth century	Private secondary schools designed to provide practical rather than college preparatory studies
Academies	Middle Colonies, New England; a few in the South	Eighteenth and nineteenth centuries	Private secondary schools designed to prepare young people for business and life; emphasized a practical curriculum, but gradually shifted back to college preparation
High schools	New England, Middle Colonies at first; now universal	1821 to present	Provided public secondary schooling; combined functions of Latin grammar schools and academies (college preparation and preparation for life and business)
Junior high schools	First in California; now universal	1909 to present	Designed to provide students in grades 7–9 with better preparation for high school
Middle schools	Universal	1950 to present	Designed to meet the unique needs of preadolescents, usually grades 6–8; an alternative to junior high schools

corporate schools

Alternative Forms of College Preparation During the colonial period, many students (especially in the South) received their secondary education from tutors or at private venture schools, which were more common in the Middle Colonies. Instruction provided by a single schoolmaster obviously lacked variety and dependability. Gradually, corporate schools were developed; these institutions were governed by a board of trustees or directors and were able to continue as a corporate endeavor beyond the tenure of any particular teacher.

commercial subjects

English Grammar Schools The growth of middle-class businesses in the 1700s led to the demand for a secondary education that would provide practical instruction in everything from navigation and engineering to bookkeeping and foreign languages. Thus there arose private **English grammar schools,** which catered to the growing number of students who needed more than elementary instruction but were not interested in preparing for college. Classes were offered at various times and places, sometimes to girls as well as to boys. Commercial rather than religious subjects were taught. Some subjects, such as music, art, and dancing, were actually not practical but were meant to train students for socializing in polite company.

greater opportunities for girls

Secondary Education for Females In the 1700s, private venture English grammar schools were more flexible than the Latin grammar schools and, as a result, were the first secondary institutions to accept female students. Depending on the sophistication of the particular school and the preferences of its clientele, girls typically studied the three Rs, geography, and French, but they also sometimes learned English grammar, history, and Latin. Some practical vocational subjects such as bookkeeping were occasionally taught along with such traditional and socially accepted skills as art and instrumental music.

Because of the somewhat larger number of private venture schools in the Middle Colonies, girls who lived there probably had greater educational opportunity than girls elsewhere. Quaker leaders, including William Penn and French-born Anthony Benezet, were concerned with and supported the education of several deprived groups, such as African Americans and Native Americans—and women.

In the South, the daughters of wealthy landowners could receive traditional instruction in the various arts and letters, such as music, dancing, and French, which would give them the social skills appropriate for the lady of a household. By the end of the colonial period, there was a double-track education that was as clearly set for middle- or upper-class girls as it was for boys in the English or Latin grammar schools.

The Academy

A new type of secondary school grew up during the second half of the eighteenth century. The **academy** was an attempt to combine Latin and English grammar schools through separate Latin and English departments within one school. Academies were unlike the Latin grammar schools in that the primary language

of the academy was English; they were unlike the English grammar schools in that they included classical subjects in the curriculum. Gradually the academy took the place of both types of school.

Growth of Academies The number of private academies grew rapidly after the American Revolution in response to the growing need for practical business training. Around 1850, about 6,000 academies were in operation.[7] Compared with the Latin grammar schools, the academies included instruction for a larger age range, which on the low end overlapped the curriculum of the common schools and on the upper end sometimes provided instruction that was as extensive as that of colleges. Although academies first focused on practical, useful studies rather than on college preparatory courses, over the years the emphasis shifted back to the classical languages and curriculum. Because they were private institutions, the academies were also at greater liberty to accept girls.

emphasis on practical studies

Female Academies The real surge of development in education for girls and young women came in the first half of the 1800s with the growth of academies and seminaries that were established especially for young women. Female academies were established by Emma Willard in Troy, New York (1821); by Catharine Beecher in Hartford, Connecticut (1828) (see Chapter 15 for a biographical sketch of Catharine Beecher); and by Mary Lyon in South Hadley, Massachusetts (1837). A secondary education acquired at one of these institutions was often the highest level of education women would ever receive. Eventually, some of these academies themselves became colleges.

surge in education for females

The female academies had to buck the established tradition against formal education for women, who in many quarters were still considered intellectually inferior to men. The schools compromised somewhat by offering courses related to home economics in addition to more classical subjects.



The availability of women teachers at low salaries during the late nineteenth century helped keep education costs down but, at the same time, contributed to the low salary problem that is still with us today. (CORBIS/The National Archives)

practical skills and teacher training

In practical terms, the leaders of the women's education movement were committed to two goals. One was to produce women who could handle the domestic chores and challenges of wives and mothers intelligently and wisely so as to "become companions rather than satellites of their husbands."[8] The curriculum of female academies therefore was designed to include subjects similar, but not identical, to those at men's institutions. Domestic skills were presented as practical applications of the more abstract traditional subjects. The other goal of women's education was to train women as teachers.

The Public High School

Although the private academies reflected the democratic independence of the middle class, their tuition and fees effectively cut out participation by the poorer working class. In the years following the American Revolution, the growing demand for free public elementary education understandably provided a basis on which to argue for free secondary education. Such schooling at public expense was the educational system most appropriate for democracy, it was argued, and the only system that could maintain democracy.

At the beginning of the 1800s, the appeal of the academies had been to provide training in studies that prepared students for a practical livelihood and not necessarily for college. By the 1840s, the same goal was being demanded of public high schools. Seen in retrospect, the academies were really a link between the earlier grammar school and the later high school.

early public high schools

In 1821, Boston created the first public English high school; a second one, for girls, was established in 1826. The number of public high schools throughout the states increased slowly but steadily as an extension of the common school system. Unlike the academies, high schools were governed by the public rather than by private school boards. Although by no means universally accepted, the argument for free public high schools was a logical one, based on the inequality of providing elementary schools for all and secondary schools only for those who could afford tuition.

a luxury or a right?

Opponents of the idea of public high schools did not dispute the need for common elementary schools. They did argue, though, that secondary school was a luxury and was not within the domain of the taxing authorities. In 1874, however, in the famous ***Kalamazoo* case** (*Stuart and Others* v. *School District No. 1 of the Village of Kalamazoo and Others*), the Michigan courts ruled that the school district could tax the public to support high schools as well as elementary schools. This court case set the precedent for financing public high schools.

Debate over the Secondary Curriculum In the late nineteenth century, debate shifted from whether public secondary schools should be supported to what the content of the curriculum should be. Guidelines for the curriculum were derived largely from the goals expressed for the schools. One goal was to reduce social tensions and strengthen the democratic form of government by bringing together all social classes and ethnic groups. Another goal was to provide better preparation for Americans to participate, upon graduation, in the full range of industrial occupations. In addition, the high schools were to offer specialized voca-

multiple purposes

tional and technical training. Finally, the high schools were supposed to provide both a terminal educational experience for most students and a bridge to higher education for those who were capable and chose to pursue further studies.

The Comprehensive High School To meet these varied purposes, the secondary curriculum shifted considerably between the Civil War and World War I. The basic mathematics courses in arithmetic, geometry, and algebra tended to be taught in a more commercial and practical context. American literature began to compete with English literature, and commercial English was added to the study of literary English. The classical languages continued to give way to modern foreign languages. In the sciences, physiology, chemistry, physics, botany, and astronomy were joined by meteorology, zoology, forestry, agriculture, and geology. Physical education was added to the curriculum. In the social studies, the number of courses in American history grew, although European history continued to be central. Civics and citizenship were added to history. Moral philosophy fell away completely and was replaced by purely commercial courses such as typing, stenography, commercial law, home economics, industrial arts, and manual training.[9] The result was the institution known today as the **public comprehensive high school,** which embodies the notion of comprehensive education, another of the key themes of American education.

a more diverse curriculum

During the twentieth century, public comprehensive high schools continued to spread. Between 1890 and 1998, the number of students in public high schools increased as a percentage of all students attending public school from 1.6 percent to 36 percent.[10] This increase is shown graphically in Figure 11.1.

Growth of Junior High and Middle Schools

How to divide grade levels for elementary and secondary training was a widely debated issue for some time. The main question was when to stop teaching basic skills and start teaching content: should there be eight elementary grades and four of secondary school, or six elementary and six secondary, or some other arrangement?

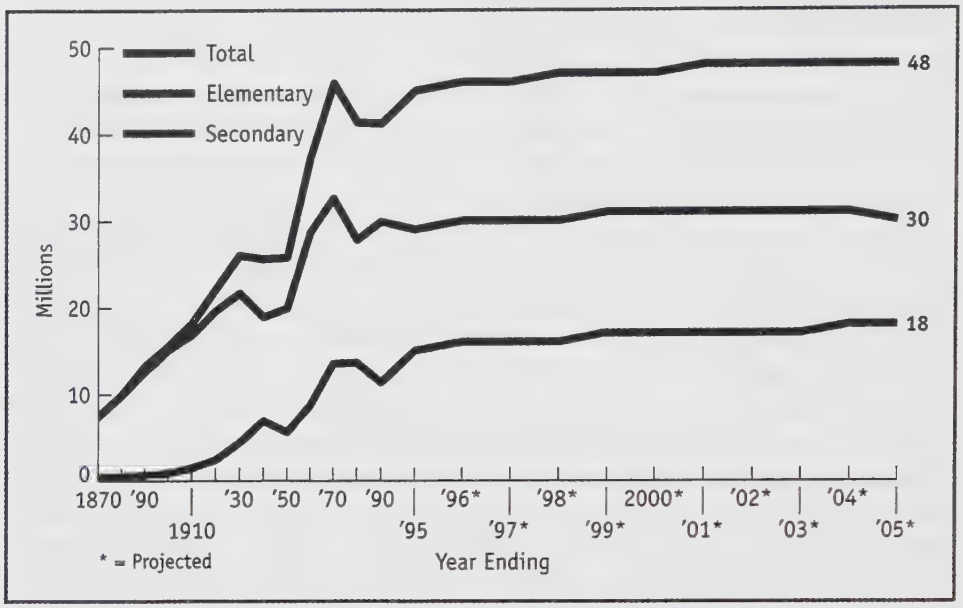
In an attempt to resolve these issues, educators began to experiment with various ways to reorganize the grades. Finally, in the school year 1909–10, in both Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, a separate program was established for the intermediate grades seven, eight, and nine. The new grouping was called **junior high school.** By 1926, over 800 school systems had a six-three-three organization, and that pattern became the dominant one.[11]

first junior high schools

Since the 1960s, however, the system of five elementary–three intermediate–four secondary grades has become increasingly popular, with a **middle school** for grades six, seven, and eight rather than a junior high school. Advocates argue that middle schools have significant advantages over junior high schools. For one thing, they offer a unique environment where ten- to thirteen-year-olds are free to grow up at their own rates and where attention is focused on the needs of this age group rather than on mimicking the high school's emphasis on academic and sports competition, as is often the case with junior high schools. Because of the earlier onset of puberty in today's children, sixth-graders may be

arguments for middle schools

FIGURE 11.1 Enrollment in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools by Level, 1869–70 to 1998, with Projections to 2008



Sources: Thomas D. Snyder, ed., *120 Years of American Education: A Statistical Portrait* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1993), p. 26; Debra E. Gerald and William J. Hussar, *Projections of Education Statistics to 2008* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1998), Table 2: web site http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/pj2008/p98t02.html.

better served in a school designed for early adolescents in grades six, seven, and eight than in an elementary school. And giving the ninth grade, which is still considered the first year in the college entrance sequence, to the high school frees middle schools to try new programs and new approaches without having to make them specifically applicable to college preparation.

emphasis on personal growth

Since the middle 1980s, there has been a deepening national commitment to the improvement of the education of early adolescents, with a strong emphasis on personal growth and development. To encourage this kind of personal growth, middle schools often use interdisciplinary team teaching, block scheduling, advisory home rooms, and exploratory activities and courses.

criticisms of middle schools

However, many education officials have become concerned about what they see as a lack of emphasis on academics in the middle school. The Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), discussed in Chapter 8, revealed that while American fourth-graders outperform their counterparts in mathematics in all but seven other nations, by the time they reach eighth grade, pupils in twenty other nations do better than U.S. students. As a result of TIMSS and other standardized testing, some critics see the middle schools as having gone "soft," overemphasizing self-esteem building at the expense of academic rigor. These critics see the middle school curriculum as being unfocused, repetitive, and unchallenging. Some critics argue for doing away with middle schools and going to

a K–8 elementary school and a 9–12 high school; others want to maintain the middle school but increase its academic focus. In the past, many states permitted teachers with either elementary or secondary teaching licenses to teach in middle school, but more of them are upping the academic coursework required of elementary school teachers who want to teach in middle schools in an effort to refocus the middle school curriculum on academic subject matter. Thirty-three states also offer teacher licenses specifically for middle school that focus on both adolescent development and academic subject-matter preparation.[12]

Middle schools continue to increase in proportion to junior highs. By the late 1990s, only a few more than 1,000 schools called themselves junior high schools, compared to 7,200 in 1968.[13] One researcher concludes, however, that despite the policy talk and incremental changes in curriculum, organization, and instruction, most middle schools, especially those in the cities, still resemble the junior high schools they were designed to replace.[14] These resemblances include departmentalization, teachers teaching separate subjects, teacher-centered instruction, students grouped by ability, and little interdisciplinary teaching. Though many schools exhibit the desired characteristics of a middle school, they are still not the majority.

how different are they?

Secondary Education Today

The most remarkable observation made about secondary education today is how little it has changed over the last one hundred years. There have been changes, of course, but they have been small relative to the changes that have occurred in American living patterns, values, technologies, and careers. The curriculum revolves around subjects that are taught by specialists and are not very different from the subjects offered in schools during World War I. As we pointed out in Chapter 8, instructional practices in high schools have changed very little from 1890 until the present day. Look at the pictures of the two secondary classrooms on this page, one taken in the late 1800s and one from today. In what ways are they similar? How are they different?





high school structure resists change

The reason lies in the basic structure of the high school. Its organizing framework, developed in the nineteenth century, persists today across all regions of the country. High schools are complicated organizations, requiring considerable orchestration to work efficiently. A change in one part of the system means that other parts must also change. As a result, relatively little change occurs. Chapter 13 examines recent efforts at structural or systemwide reform.

Private Education

Private schools have always been part of American education. Historically they have served three major purposes, providing (1) instruction for various religious denominations, (2) an exclusive education for the wealthy, and (3) an alternative for any group that finds the available forms of education unsatisfactory. For more than 150 years, until the growth of the common school movement in the early 1800s, most education in America was private.

Since the middle of the nineteenth century, by far the largest private school enrollments have been in parochial schools run by the Roman Catholic Church. The earliest Catholic schools existed primarily in the Spanish-speaking Southwest and in French-speaking Louisiana. After 1840, however, Irish and Italian immigration increased the support of Catholic institutions in the North and East.

Catholic school growth

The total number of Catholic schools grew from about 100 in 1840 to about 3,000 in the 1880s, to 8,000 in 1920, and to over 13,000 in the early 1960s. From that point through the early 1980s, however, many Catholic schools closed. Today, the number of Catholic schools has stabilized at slightly more than 8,200.[15]

In terms of enrollment, Catholic schools now have a total student membership of about 2.5 million, compared with an estimated 1.7 million students in other religious schools and an estimated 770,000 in nonsectarian private schools.[16] The total enrollment for all private schools amounts to about 11 percent of all students in U.S. schools.[17] Chapter 14 offers more information about private schools in the context of job opportunities for teachers.

discrimination against private schools

The steady reduction in the percentage of private school students in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was not only a sign of public school strength; it also reflected outright discrimination and pressure against those who wanted to be "different." An extreme case followed World War I, when Nebraska passed a law prohibiting the teaching of German in either public or private schools. However, in 1922, the Supreme Court ruled that a state could not interfere with the prerogative of parents to educate their children as they see fit—in this case, at a private school that taught the German language—simply on the grounds of desiring to "foster a more homogeneous people with American ideals."[18] When, in 1925, an Oregon law required all children to attend public school, a Roman Catholic school and another private school successfully challenged the law on the grounds that their Fourteenth Amendment rights were being threatened.

still an important alternative

But if public schools have clearly become the principal mode of education in America, it is also significant that private education has remained an important

alternative for about 10 to 15 percent of the population. This fact reflects a paradox. On the one hand, from the early days, private schools have represented the freedom of immigrant groups to pursue life in America and to educate their children as they choose. That privilege was essential to the young democracy and still represents a basic freedom of choice in America. On the other hand, some argue that private education supports a caste system that is, in principle, not democratic. The very existence of private forms of education can be viewed as an implied criticism either of the quality of public education or of its availability on equal terms to all comers, irrespective of class, religion, or race. As discussed in detail in Chapter 5, this issue has gained in importance as school voucher plans expand to include private and religious school options.

Education of Minorities

Before discussing the education of minorities, it is important to note that members of a minority group are often discussed as though they were a homogeneous subgroup of Americans. However, the terms *African Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans,* and *Native Americans* actually encompass many ethnic, national, and linguistic groups. Although it is convenient to use these broader terms, we should not forget that within each subgroup great diversity exists.

categories encompass many groups

The picture of American education we've drawn up till now has been quite rosy, because the educational achievements of this country over the past 350 years are indeed impressive. There is, however, a less pleasant side to the picture. The history of education provides insight into people's values in general, and the educational experience of minorities tends to reflect how a society relates to them. The somewhat idealized image of the melting pot begins to break down when we look at the experience of nonwhite groups.

Ethnic minorities such as African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans traditionally have not been given equal educational opportunity in America. Not until the late nineteenth century, for example, did the federal government make any serious effort to provide education for Native Americans. American society is still suffering today from the effects of educational neglect of various minority groups.

minorities excluded from equal educational opportunities

Education of African Americans

Before the Civil War As is true of colonial education generally, the earliest motivation to educate African Americans was religious. In New England, as early as 1717, the Reverend Cotton Mather started an evening school for slaves. In the South, the first attempts to educate African Americans were carried out by clergy, particularly English representatives of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. To dubious slave owners, ministers defended the education of slaves not only as a religious duty to save their souls but also because conversion to Christianity, it was believed, would make them more docile.[19]

schools for free African Americans in North

In the North, schools were established for free African Americans. In 1731, Anthony Benezet, a French-born Quaker, started a school for slave and free African American children in Philadelphia. Another school was begun by Benjamin Franklin, as president of the Abolitionist Society, in 1774. In 1787, an African Free School was established in New York City with an enrollment of forty students, which grew to over five hundred by 1820. The city provided funds in 1824 and took over the school in 1834, thus providing education for African Americans before many white children were receiving it.

Prejudices, it is well known, are most difficult to eradicate from the heart whose soil has never been loosened or fertilized by education; they grow there, firm as weeds among stones.

—CHARLOTTE BRONTË (JANE EYRE)

Yet conditions were not all bright in the North. In 1833, Prudence Crandall, a white schoolmistress in Canterbury, Connecticut, began to take in African American girls. The villagers boycotted the school, threw manure into its well, and tried to burn it down. Finally, a mob broke the windows, and the school was closed.[20]

education for African Americans prohibited in South

In the South, following slave rebellions in the early 1800s, states gradually prohibited altogether the teaching of African American children, whether slave or free. Some slaves were taught to read by favorably disposed masters. However, slave owners generally reasoned that reading would lead to thinking, and thinking would lead to the desire for freedom. As the Civil War approached, abolitionist agitation often came from the few liberal colleges, such as Oberlin in Ohio and Bowdoin in Maine, that allowed the enrollment of African American students.

The Late Nineteenth Century In the period following the Civil War, the seeds for the education of African Americans that had been sown before the war slowly began to sprout. During the period of Reconstruction, from 1865 into the 1870s, the federal government, through the Freedmen's Bureau and the occupying army, attempted to promote African American voting registration and schooling. Help also came from private and religious philanthropies in the North. Because it was hoped that whites also would benefit from these endeavors, schooling was advocated for the general public as well. Yet the common school movement was weakest in the South, and at first most whites there refused to participate not only in integrated schools but also in segregated schools, both of which they believed the northern carpetbaggers were forcing on them.

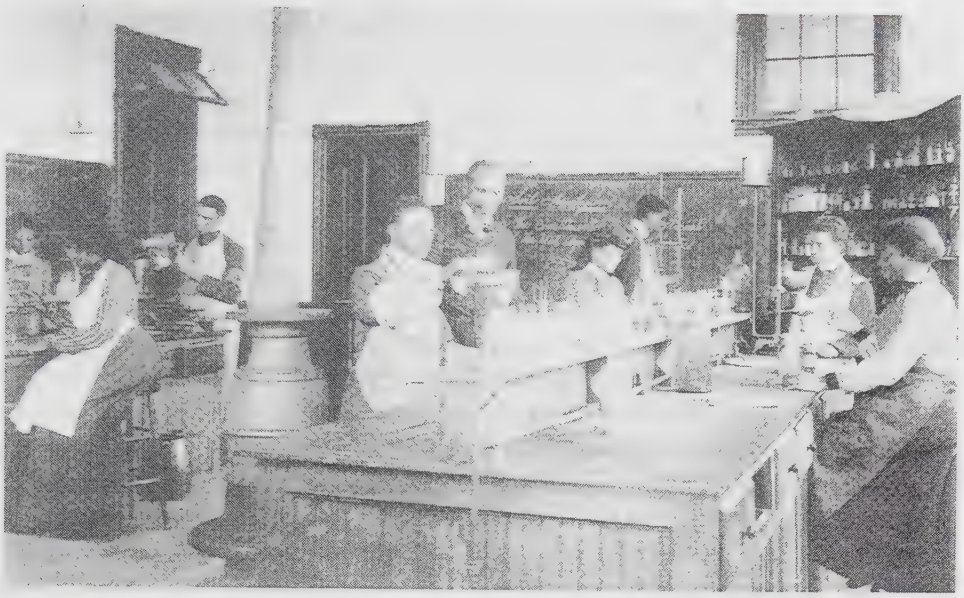
efforts to promote education

separate schools in South

By the end of Reconstruction, southern whites began to allow the existence of separate schools for African Americans. African American enrollment in the schools, which had been only 2 percent of the school-age children in 1850, was 10 percent by 1870 and 35 percent by 1890, though it dropped somewhat after that during a period of severe repression by the new white state governments.[21] During this period, "Jim Crow" laws were passed separating African Americans from whites in all areas of life. The vote was effectively taken away from the newly enfranchised African Americans by poll taxes and "grandfather rules," which allowed the vote only to those African Americans whose families could vote before the emancipation, thereby excluding all the freed slaves.

Booker T. Washington

Into these conditions, a young African American teacher named Booker T. Washington (1856–1915) was called to start an African American normal school



The Tuskegee Normal School was established in 1881 by Booker T. Washington. (CORBIS/Library of Congress)

Tuskegee Institute—practical education

in Tuskegee, Alabama, in 1881. Originally named the Tuskegee Normal School for Colored Teachers, it was later renamed the Tuskegee Institute. There Washington found only a few students, no physical plant, and a hostile white community. Washington, who had been born a slave, realized that the traditional curriculum of the classics would neither prepare his students to help other African Americans learn nor help to ameliorate the tensions with the white community. Believing strongly in the idea of learning by doing, Washington instructed his students to build the school themselves. In this process, they learned practical skills, grew produce that could be sold to the white community, and in general showed the whites that African American people could be productive members of society. Booker T. Washington gradually came to be considered the outstanding African American leader of the time by the white establishment.

Education must not simply teach work—it must teach life.

—*W. E. B. Du Bois*

W. E. B. Du Bois

But a growing number of young African Americans who, unlike Washington, had not been born into slavery believed that Washington's policy of conciliatory training for menial positions in white society would not benefit African American people in the long run. They believed that practical training is necessary but there must also be an intellectually sound and academically rich program of study for the "talented tenth" who would form the African American intellectual leadership. This was the view of W. E. B. Du Bois (1868–1963), an African American intellectual and scholar who held a doctorate from Harvard.

In 1862, the U.S. Congress passed the **Morrill Act.** This legislation granted each state a minimum of 30,000 acres of federal land with the proviso that the income from the rent or sale of these lands must be used to establish colleges for the study of agriculture and mechanical arts. A total of 6 million acres of federal land were donated to the states. The resulting land-grant institutions (such as the

University of Illinois, Texas A & M, and Michigan State University) became the great multipurpose state universities that now enroll hundreds of thousands of students from all segments of society.

second Morrill Act

In 1890, Congress enacted a second Morrill Act that increased the endowment of land to the original land-grant colleges but forbade the granting of money to a college with an admission policy that discriminated against nonwhites unless a separate facility for African Americans existed nearby. This second Morrill Act thus provided federal support to states to create "separate but equal" colleges for African Americans. As a result of this legislation, a number of so-called **1890 institutions** were created for the higher education of African Americans. Many of these historically African American colleges (Florida A & M and North Carolina A & T, for example) still exist today as integrated institutions.

1890 institutions

"separate but equal"

In 1896, in the case of ***Plessy* v. *Ferguson,*** the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of "separate but equal" accommodations for African Americans. Though the ruling originally referred to seating in a railroad car, it was quickly extended to the schools. The practical significance of this ruling was to add federal sanction to the legal separation of African American schoolchildren from white children, most notably in the South, for almost the next sixty years.

southern African American schools impoverished

The Twentieth Century The fact that southern schools for African Americans were not equal to those for whites is woefully clear from looking at financial expenditures alone. In 1912, the southern states as a group paid white teachers slightly more than $10 per white child in school but paid African American teachers less than $3 per African American child. In the 1930s, in ten southern states, African American children made up 34 percent of the school population but received only 3 percent of the funds available for school transportation. Discrimination also existed in the distribution of federal funds, particularly in vocational education, the largest and most important educational program subsidized by the federal government.[22]

de jure segregation

de facto segregation

Most northern states did not have **de jure school segregation,** or *segregation by law,* but the crowding of African Americans into isolated neighborhoods often resulted in **de facto segregation,** that is, segregation resulting primarily from residential patterns. Furthermore, the large numbers of southern African American children who migrated with their parents to northern cities often had to be demoted because they had not mastered the same amount of material as their northern counterparts. Generally, even in the North, African American teachers taught African American children.

however, some gains

Although these conditions continued in varying degrees through the 1940s, some gains were nevertheless achieved. The average daily attendance of African American children increased and approached that of white students. The salaries of African American teachers also increased, reducing the economic gap between African American and white teachers with equal training. After African Americans had served in two world wars to "save democracy," the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), founded in 1909, began taking cases to the courts. Beginning with universities rather than elementary

schools, the NAACP succeeded in having the courts rule that various law school facilities for African Americans were clearly unequal to those for whites.

Brown v. Board of Education

The stage was then set for the precedent-shattering case of ***Brown* v. *Board of Education of Topeka*** (1954), in which the Supreme Court ruled that separate educational facilities are inherently unequal and that laws requiring white and nonwhite students to go to different schools were illegal. The Supreme Court concluded that de jure school segregation violated the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution. Early desegregation efforts therefore were aimed at eliminating de jure segregation.

Desegregation Efforts Throughout the 1960s and into the 1970s, many school systems, often in response to specific court orders, also attempted to reduce or eliminate de facto school segregation. As a result, many school districts underwent desegregation efforts. What have been the results of these efforts? Several researchers have concluded that desegregated schools have accomplished more than mere educational reform; that is, African American students who attended integrated schools experienced desegregation in several aspects of adult life, including attending predominantly white colleges and universities, working in desegregated settings, and living in desegregated neighborhoods.[23]

desegregation results

Busing Although these long-range findings are quite positive, desegregation efforts have had some negative results. One major problem has concerned busing. Busing students to desegregated schools was one of the most inflammatory issues in education in the 1970s and 1980s. Emotions on the topic often ran very high—so high, in fact, that white parents sometimes slashed bus tires, burned buses, and physically prevented buses from running to avoid having their children bused to other schools.[24]

court-ordered busing

The federal court system was the prime mover in ordering school districts to employ busing in the desegregation process. For example, the U.S. Supreme Court, in *Swann* v. *Charlotte-Mecklenberg* (1971), concluded that the need to hasten desegregation was great, and busing was deemed an appropriate measure provided the distance of travel was not so great as to risk the health of the children or impinge significantly on the educational process.

mixed success

Busing to achieve desegregation has had mixed success. One of the most successful busing plans began in Berkeley, California, in 1968. Berkeley desegregated its elementary schools by two-way, cross-town busing. A later survey found that the white residents did not leave the community, there was no high teacher turnover rate, and SAT verbal scores indicated that white, African American, and Asian American students all made better progress after desegregation.[25] On the other hand, in many other communities, attempts to desegregate the schools by busing met with tremendous community resistance, for example, in Boston in the fall of 1974.

Big-City Desegregation A major obstacle to desegregating big-city public schools is that the minority percentage of inner-city populations has increased



Busing as a Tool for Desegregating the Schools: Is That the Issue?

What's the Policy?

Shortly after the *Brown* v. *Board of Education* decision, the federal government's policy goal was to stop segregation by compelling white and black students to attend school together. For example, busing children from segregated neighborhoods to integrated schools became a major federal court initiative to end desegregation and achieve integration. Today, however, poor student achievement, especially in urban areas, and the exodus of whites with school-age children from our cities has disillusioned many whites and African Americans regarding these desegregation efforts. Recent Supreme Court rulings also seem to signal a policy shift away from forcing school districts to pursue busing and other desegregation plans.

How Does It Affect Teachers?

The Supreme Court's turn away from busing and desegregation efforts means that teachers in certain parts of the country are less likely to find a mixture of black and white students in their classes. Classrooms are more likely to be dominated by single-race representation.

What Are the Pros?

For many whites and African Americans alike, the issue is no longer desegregation for its own sake but higher educational quality. For example, in a 1998 poll of black and white parents, the Public Agenda and the Public Education Network found that almost 70 percent of the African American respondents said the nation had pursued the goal of integration in the wrong way, and just 55 percent supported busing as a means to achieve racial balance. Nearly three-quarters said schools had neglected instructional quality while pursuing integration.

Rather than focusing on putting blacks and whites together in schools hoping good things will happen, parents want their children to go to good schools where they are safe and where they learn to read and to understand mathematics from well-qualified teachers. They believe the cost of forced busing is too high when the nation's schools face more urgent issues of quality.

What Are the Cons?

Desegregation continues to be an important goal in the minds of many citizens. For instance, the same poll described above also found that eight out of ten African American parents considered it important that their children's schools be racially integrated, as did nearly seven out of ten white parents.

In addition, those who continue to support busing and other desegregation efforts argue that separation of the races has never produced equal and successful schools for African Americans. They find little evidence to suggest that separation will work now. Desegregation proponents also point to research evidence showing a strong correlation between school districts with few whites and those with high rates of poverty, which is known to be linked to lower educational achievement. For these reasons, they believe continued desegregation policies, even busing, are still needed.

What Do You Think?

1. What reasons can you give for the nation's retreat from desegregation efforts?
2. In your opinion, what must happen for minority students in high-poverty areas to receive a quality education? Can it happen in racially separated schools? Why or why not?
3. Do you support busing as a policy for desegregating the schools? Why or why not?

dramatically during the past several decades. In part, this has been due to "white flight": an exodus of white students whose parents have chosen to move to the suburbs or place their children in private schools. (But not only whites are fleeing the city schools: middle-class African Americans are also leaving to give their children a chance to be educated in better schools.) Independent of this population shift, the number of minority students in big-city school systems has also increased. Today cities such as New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, Detroit, Atlanta, Houston, and Dallas have school minority enrollments approaching 90 percent.[26] How can schools in major cities be desegregated when the percentage of racial minority students is growing and the percentage of white students is decreasing?

"white flight"

One solution would be to take the emerging residential segregation as given—minority cities and white suburbs—and attempt to overcome its effects on school segregation with metropolitan-area-wide school desegregation. In this approach, children would be bused over the entire metropolitan area. However, the Supreme Court has ruled that this approach is justified only if racially discriminating acts of either state or local officials are judged to have occurred in the creation of either predominantly white or African American school districts.

metropolitan-area strategies

During the 1980s, court-ordered busing was no longer the preferred method for integrating the schools. Busing, of course, was never an end in itself. It was only one means of integrating society, and polls indicate that even opponents of involuntary busing agree that our society needs to be integrated. Today the principal cause of segregated schools is not legal action but the choices of individuals whose housing patterns segregate our society and our schools. As long as these patterns persist, desegregation of the schools will continue to be problematic.

decline of busing

Recent Developments After dramatic progress in desegregating our nation's schools during the 1960s and 1970s, evidence suggests that desegregation of African Americans leveled off in the 1980s and resegregation is now fast approaching the levels before 1970.[27] This is particularly true in large urban centers. Although many political and educational leaders remain committed to desegregated schools, others are questioning whether integration is an idea whose time has passed. In many communities, these leaders, typically members of minority groups, call for shifting the emphasis from integrating schools to improving the quality of one-race neighborhood schools. They have lost faith that desegregation is the answer to better schools.

segregation increasing

Several U.S. Supreme Court decisions during the 1990s dramatically reversed school desegregation plans ordered by lower courts, thus eliminating much of the pressure to desegregate schools. In these rulings, the Supreme Court declared that (1) school districts could be released from lower-court desegregation oversight if the school district had complied in good faith with the lower court's decree and eliminated, to the extent practicable, vestiges of segregation in student and staff assignments, transportation, facilities, and extracurricular activities; (2) federal desegregation decrees were never intended to be perpetual, and the day-to-day operations of schools should be returned to local officials as soon as possible; and (3) desegregation decrees cannot eliminate differences in student

Supreme Court reverses direction

Segregation was wrong when it was forced by white people, and I believe it is still wrong when it is requested by black people.

—CORETTA SCOTT KING

performance caused by poverty, poor family structure, and other socioeconomic factors, so once the lingering effects of legally enforced segregation are eliminated, school districts may run schools that happen to be all black or all white. In essence, the Supreme Court has said that there are practical limits to what a federal court can do to remedy prior discrimination, and once school districts have corrected initial racial imbalances, they are not required to remedy subsequent imbalances caused by demographic changes.

desegregation does not always lead to integration

Desegregation Versus Integration Another point needs to be made before closing this discussion: desegregation does not necessarily lead to integration. True integration is a very human process that can occur only after desegregation has gone into effect. It happens when people from different racial and ethnic backgrounds learn to be comfortable with one another and to get along together. It means ending racial prejudice and respecting ethnic differences. Anyone who has spent time in racially mixed schools, especially high schools, knows that African American and white students who attend the same school can still be extremely distant from each other. Just bringing together students from different racial groups, social classes, and neighborhood backgrounds will not automatically lead to friendship, understanding, and appreciation of one another. As long as our society remains segregated, efforts to integrate our schools are likely to produce tension, at least in the short run. Integrating individuals with increasingly diverse racial, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds remains one of the great challenges to schools and society.



At the beginning of the twentieth century, special schools for Native Americans, such as the Carlisle Indian School in Carlisle, Pennsylvania, taught basic skills, such as mending clothes, to students. (CORBIS/Bettmann)

Education of Native Americans

As early as 1622, in an ominous forecast of future policies, one colonist wrote back to England that it was easier to conquer the Indians than to civilize them.[28] The education of Native Americans received less public attention than that of African Americans because Native Americans were considered an impediment to westward expansion, they were far from major population centers, and their dealings were largely with the federal government.

education for religious purposes

Initially the education of Native Americans, like that of African Americans, had a religious purpose. Once they had been put on reservations, the Native Americans received schooling from missionaries, who attempted to "civilize" them through the three Rs and, of course, the fourth R: religion. In the 1890s, these missionary schools were gradually replaced by government boarding schools, which tried to assimilate Native Americans by prohibiting them from speaking their native language and teaching them skills associated with white society, such as farming and mechanical skills for boys and domestic chores for girls. Little emphasis was placed on academics.

My son, Wind Wolf, is not an empty glass coming into your class to be filled. He is a full basket coming into a different environment and society with something special to share. Please let him share his knowledge, heritage, and culture with you and his peers.

—ROBERT LAKE

The people who had been Native Americans for 20,000 years finally became American citizens in 1924. However, that did not mean they controlled their own education. The federal government, through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, directed the education of Native Americans until the mid-1970s. During this time Native American participation was virtually ignored, as was acknowledgment of their culture in their educational programs. The elimination of Native American languages and culture was an important strategy in the efforts to assimilate Native Americans.

By 1965, Native Americans had begun to demand control of their schools, and a few demonstration sites for such tribal schools were funded. These schools were able to include much of the native culture in their curricula, but they were still financially dependent on the federal government, which meant limited instructional materials and lower-paid teachers than in many public schools.

federal legislation

Between 1972 and 1975, Congress enacted three bills that affected Native American education and self-determination. These bills encouraged the establishment of community-run schools, offered grants to develop culturally relevant and bilingual curriculum materials, placed the Office of Indian Education under the U.S. Office of Education (now the Department of Education), and established an advisory council made up of Native Americans. The Bureau of Indian Affairs is still actively involved in educational matters, but now in a supportive rather than directive capacity. The federal government has shifted responsibility for educating Native Americans from the Bureau of Indian Affairs and tribal schools to public schools. As a result, about 90 percent of Native American students in grades K–12 attend public schools.[29] This trend may have helped reduce the isolation of Native American students. However, because Native American community involvement in public education is slight, the move toward public

majority attendance in public schools

schooling has resulted in a loss of the limited control Native Americans had begun to exercise over the education their children receive.

remaining problems

Today the education of the Native American population in the United States, about 500,000 students, is still plagued by poverty, parental alcoholism, underachievement, absenteeism, over-age students, and a high dropout rate of 39 percent.[30] Native American students drop out of school more than any other racial group. Many Native Americans believe that a culturally appropriate curriculum is needed to overcome these deficiencies and reduce the cultural discontinuities between home and school. A 1997 evaluation of Native American schools concluded that they should integrate their programs into a whole-school, standards-based reform effort and increase the participation of the Native American community. A 1998 presidential order on educational opportunities for American Indians and Alaska Natives established an interagency task force to develop a coordinated federal response to help these students, including establishing a research agenda and supporting pilot programs to improve technical assistance.[31]

Education of Hispanic Americans

As with Native Americans, the first contact Spanish-speaking people had with the United States was often a result of annexation and warfare. Although they have lived in the continental United States for over 400 years, Hispanic people came into substantial contact with Anglo-Americans about 200 years ago, and almost from the beginning there was a cultural clash. Hispanic children first attended religious mission schools, which were gradually replaced by secular public schools. In the process, the Spanish language and Hispanic culture were subjected to a type of discrimination that was perhaps less blatant than that against African Americans but just as pervasive. The common school of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, although it opened educational and social opportunities in Anglo-America, often sealed off those opportunities for Hispanic Americans. Hispanic children tended to receive lower scores than Anglo children on English-language IQ tests, which not only were written in a language that was not their own but also reflected Anglo middle-class values. Thus, an image of Hispanic children's intellectual inferiority was reinforced.

discrimination against Hispanics

Since the 1940s, the courts have acknowledged that de facto segregation exists between Anglo and Hispanic schoolchildren and have required corrective integration plans. The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act provided new support to the education of Hispanics, as it did to the education of Native Americans. Another response has been the establishment of bilingual education programs to provide instruction in the native tongue at the same time students learn English. As a result, students can enter the English-language curriculum at the appropriate age levels for their grades. However, as mentioned in Chapter 4, bilingual education programs are being denounced and replaced with English immersion programs in such states as California and Arizona.

bilingual education

Although significant progress has been made, there is still much concern about the education of Hispanics in the United States. For example, the high school completion rate for Hispanics ages twenty-five to twenty-nine is only 62

high dropout rates, low academic achievement

percent, compared with 93 and 87 percent for whites and African Americans, respectively. About 18 percent of Hispanics have earned bachelor's degrees, compared to 35 and 16 percent for whites and African Americans, respectively.[32] Furthermore, reading and mathematics proficiencies are significantly lower for the Hispanic population in comparison with the white population. The public schools have not served these students well, and the cost in human and economic terms is enormous. Hispanic youth represents the fastest-growing segment of the U.S. population, and Hispanics now account for more than a quarter of all new entrants into the labor force. As demographers project higher and higher percentages of Hispanic students enrolled in public schools in the twenty-first century, the schools' response to these students' needs will have important consequences for society. Without increased educational attainment, Hispanic Americans will be relegated to low-skill jobs and locked in the lowest socioeconomic brackets.

Education of Asian Americans

The diversity of Asian Americans is evident from the historical beginnings of different groups of Asian Americans in the United States, and it persists in educational issues today.

diverse groups of Asian Americans

The three largest groups of Asian Americans are the Chinese, the Filipinos, and the Japanese. Chinese immigrants began arriving in the United States in the 1840s. Most of them were poor and largely uneducated. They helped to fulfill a great need for cheap, unskilled laborers in the railroad and other industries in the American West. Intense discrimination was present, however, in part because of competition with white workers for employment. By 1882, Congress passed an exclusionary act halting Chinese immigration. Filipinos began immigrating to the United States in the early 1900s. By 1930, their entry into the United States was also limited by a congressional exclusionary act. Japanese immigrants began arriving in the United States from 1890 to 1920. Many supplied labor for agricultural industries in Hawaii until another exclusionary act was passed in 1924 limiting Japanese immigration.

discrimination against Asian Americans

Discrimination against early Asian Americans was rampant, especially in the West, where most Asian Americans settled. School segregation of Chinese American children in California lasted until at least 1946. Japanese American children in California were forced to attend segregated schools up until World War II. With the outbreak of World War II, anti-Asian hostility subsided somewhat for immigrants of Chinese, Filipino, and Korean descent. However, the "yellow peril," perceived as emanating from Japanese Americans, resulted in the imprisonment in detention camps of over 110,000 Japanese Americans, most of whom were American-born citizens.

With the end of World War II, discrimination against Asian Americans began to subside. Naturalization rights were extended to resident Asian aliens. With the postwar expansion of the American economy, many Asian Americans benefited from greater job opportunities. Previous immigration restrictions were lifted in 1965, and the influx of Asian immigrants greatly increased. Since the U.S. with-

recent Asian immigration

drawal from Vietnam in 1975, enormous numbers of Indochinese immigrants have come to the United States and entered our school systems. The adaptation of more recent Asian immigrants has varied because of a range of educational levels and previous socioeconomic circumstances. Current census estimates indicate that Asian and Pacific Islanders number roughly 7 million, or about 3 percent of the U.S. population. It is projected that by the year 2020, this group will reach about 20 million.[33]

With the higher educational achievement and income levels of some Asian Americans, this group has often been touted as a "model minority" that has overcome discrimination through hard work, perseverance, and industriousness. However, this rosy stereotype is misleading and at times has contributed to misconceptions and complacency in meeting the educational needs and concerns of Asian American students.

stereotype misleading

Many recent Asian American immigrants to the United States have little or no knowledge of the English language. This creates formidable language and cultural barriers for students entering the U.S. education system, and may lead to serious family-school discontinuities, alienation from school, and dropout problems. The U.S. Supreme Court established in *Lau* v. *Nichols* (1974) that schools must offer students sufficient special instruction to be afforded equal educational opportunity. There is a pressing need for adequate language instruction for this subgroup of Asian Americans, and as immigration continues to increase, this need will likely grow in our school systems.

language difficulties

Parental and community involvement of Asian Americans in the education process also needs to be fostered. Parents of Asian American students are often noted as being concerned with their children's education. However, because of the respect traditionally given educators, they are hesitant to intervene when they are dissatisfied with their children's educational progress. Another deterrent to parental participation is the fact that a much higher proportion of Asian American families have two parents employed, a situation that makes attendance at traditional teacher conferences or PTO meetings difficult. Many communities are making efforts to organize and voice the needs of Asian American students.

impediments to parental involvement

As the number of Asian American students continues to grow, it will become increasingly important for teachers and administrators to be knowledgeable of and sensitive to the special problems and needs of Asian American students and their families. To serve these students adequately in our schools, it is particularly important to keep in mind that Asian Americans are a changing and complex group whose achievement, aspirations, and learning styles should not be stereotyped.

A Final Word

At the beginning of this chapter, we identified six major themes that have shaped the history of American education and schooling: local control, universal education, public education, comprehensive education, secular education, and changing ideas of the basics. If you think back over the issues raised in earlier chapters

TABLE 11.4 Some Significant Dates in the History of American Education

1635	Establishment of the Boston Latin grammar school
1647	Massachusetts Old Deluder Satan Act: towns of fifty families or more must provide instruction in reading and writing; towns of one hundred families or more must establish grammar schools
1687–90	First edition of the *New England Primer*
1783	Noah Webster publishes the *American Spelling Book*
1785, 1787	Northwest Ordinances, requiring new states in that territory to set aside land for educational purposes
1821	First public high school in the United States opens in Boston; Emma Willard establishes first school for women's higher education
1839	First public normal school in the United States established in Lexington, Massachusetts
1860	First English-language kindergarten established in the United States
1862	First Morrill Act provides for land-grant institutions that now enroll hundreds of thousands of students from all segments of society
1890	Second Morrill Act requires that federal funds be available only to colleges with nondiscriminatory admission policies unless separate facilities for African Americans exist nearby. As a result, a number of "separate but equal" institutions are established.
1896	*Plessy* v. *Ferguson,* Supreme Court decision used to support constitutionality of separate schools for whites and blacks
1944	GI Bill of Rights provides federal funding for continued education of veterans of World War II (later extended to veterans of the Korean and Vietnam wars)
1954	*Brown* v. *Board of Education of Topeka* decision of the Supreme Court requiring desegregation of public schools
1957	Soviet Union launches *Sputnik,* leading to criticism and reevaluation of American public education
1965	Elementary and Secondary Education Act provides more federal aid to public schools
1971	U.S. Supreme Court rules unanimously in *Swann* v. *Charlotte-Mecklenberg Board of Education* that busing may be ordered to achieve racial desegregation
1972	Title IX Education Amendment outlaws sex discrimination in educational institutions receiving federal financial assistance
1975	Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94–142) passed
1979	Department of Education established in federal government with cabinet status
1990	Congress passes the Americans with Disabilities Act

of this text, you can see the effect of these themes on contemporary education. For example, the universal and public nature of the educational system strikes at the issue of equal educational opportunity and questions of school finance and governance. Current controversies over the content of education—questions about the secular or sacred nature of the curriculum, debate about the need for standards of learning, and efforts to provide excellence in education without sacrificing equality of opportunity—relate to the concepts of secular, universal, and comprehensive education and the definition of what is "basic." Thus, these six themes continue to play themselves out in our evolving educational system. Table 11.4 lists important dates and events in American education, many of which relate to these six themes.

KEY TERMS

dame school (358)
Old Deluder Satan Act (359)
town school (359)
district school (359)
New England Primer (360)
private venture school (360)
common school (361)
universal education (361)
Northwest Ordinances (361)
McGuffey Readers (363)
kindergarten (365)
Latin grammar school (370)
English grammar school (372)
academy (372)
Kalamazoo case (374)
public comprehensive high school (375)
junior high school (375)
middle school (375)
Morrill Act (381)
1890 institutions (382)
Plessy v. *Ferguson* (382)
de jure school segregation (382)
de facto [school] segregation (382)
Brown v. *Board of Education of Topeka* (383)

FOR REFLECTION

1. Why is it important for teachers to know the history of American education? How might you use such knowledge?
2. How did the moral lessons you were taught in school compare with those taught in earlier American schools?
3. Why did the educational development of colonial America differ among the New England, Middle, and Southern colonies? In what ways were the educational systems different?
4. What factors contributed to the development of the common school movement? Who were some of the leading advocates of the movement toward universal, free education?
5. What made the development of the American secondary school so unique in the history of the world?

6. What has been the role of private education in American history?
7. In what ways were the histories of the education of minority groups and women similar and different?

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

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This text is a historical examination of instructional practices in American classrooms.

"Lessons of a Century," *Education Week,* January 27, 1999–December 15, 1999. World Wide Web site at http://www.edweek.org.
Ten monthly installments examining aspects of the educational landscape of twentieth-century America, including the people, trends, historical milestones, enduring controversies, political conflicts, and socioeconomic forces that shaped education.

Library of Congress. World Wide Web site at http://www.loc.gov.
Users of this site will find easy access to THOMAS (legislative information), the Library of Congress catalog, and much more. Particularly relevant for the history of American education is the "Learning Page," which provides information on using materials in the American Memory historical collections, as well as lesson plans and links to related web pages.

Orfield, Gary, Susan Eaton, and the Harvard Project on School Desegregation. *Dismantling Desegregation: The Quiet Reversal of Brown v. Board of Education.* New York: New Press, 1996.
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This important book on school reforms in the United States argues that utopian policy talk about school reform usually has involved only incremental policy action— "tinkering with the system."

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This book is a relatively brief overview of American education, written by well-known scholars.



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